

Revocable Cryptography in a Quantum World

Thesis by
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The logo for the California Institute of Technology (Caltech), featuring the word "Caltech" in a bold, orange, sans-serif font.

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ABSTRACT

Quantum cryptography leverages unique features of quantum mechanics in order to construct cryptographic primitives which are oftentimes impossible for digital computers. Cryptographic applications of quantum computers therefore have the potential for useful quantum advantage—entirely without computational speed-ups. Can we use the power of quantum states to address fundamental limitations in the world of classical cryptography, such as the intricate problem of “revoking” information from an untrusted party? This thesis undertakes a systematic study of how to delegate and revoke privileges in a world in which quantum computers become widely available. As part of a single framework we call *revocable cryptography*, we show how to revoke programs, encrypted data, and even cryptographic keys under standard assumptions.

In the first part of this thesis, we focus on the following question: can we use the no-cloning principle of quantum mechanics and encode a program in such a way that it can be evaluated, yet it cannot be *pirated*? Naturally, we would also like to ensure that, once the program is “returned,” the recipient loses its ability to evaluate it. While this quantum notion of *secure software leasing* (SSL) was shown to be impossible for general programs by Ananth and La Placa (Eurocrypt 2021), their work left open the possibility that it is achievable for more primitive classes of programs. We construct an SSL scheme for a large class of evasive functions known as *compute-and-compare programs*—a more expressive generalization of point functions. Our scheme can be instantiated with any cryptographic hash function, and we prove its security in the quantum random oracle model. As a complementary result, we also construct a *quantum copy-protection* scheme for multi-bit point functions, which achieves a related but stronger notion of software protection previously introduced by Aaronson (CCC 2009).

In the second part of this thesis, we ask: is it possible to provably delete information by leveraging the laws of quantum mechanics? We revisit a cryptographic notion called *certified deletion*, which was proposed by Broadbent and Islam (TCC 2020). While this remarkable notion allows a classical verifier to be convinced that quantum ciphertext has been deleted by an untrusted party, it offers no additional layer of functionality. We use Gaussian superpositions over lattices to construct the first fully homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion – a protocol which allows an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and to also prove data deletion to a client. Our scheme has the desirable property that verification of a deletion certificate is *public*; meaning anyone can verify whether deletion has taken place. Assuming the quantum subexponential hardness of the learning with errors problem (Regev, STOC 2005), we can prove that our scheme achieves a particularly strong *information-theoretic* deletion guarantee; namely, once a valid deletion certificate is presented, the plaintext remains hidden even if the adversary is

subsequently allowed to run in unbounded time.

In the final part of this thesis, we ask: is it possible to revoke a cryptographic key by using the power of quantum information? We give an affirmative answer to this question and design cryptosystems with key-revocation capabilities; specifically, we consider schemes with the guarantee that, once the secret key (represented as a quantum state) is successfully revoked from a user, they no longer have the ability to perform the same functionality as before. We define and construct several fundamental cryptographic primitives with key-revocation capabilities, namely pseudorandom functions, secret-key and public-key encryption, and even fully homomorphic encryption, assuming the subexponential hardness of the learning with errors problem. Central to all our constructions is our approach for making the Dual-Regev encryption scheme (Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan, STOC 2008) revocable.

PUBLISHED CONTENT AND CONTRIBUTIONS

The chapters of this thesis are based on the following publications or preprints.

Chapter 3: This is based on the following work:

- Andrea Coladangelo, Christian Majenz, and Alexander Poremba. “Quantum copy-protection of compute-and-compare programs in the quantum random oracle model.” In: *arXiv preprint arXiv:2009.13865* (2020).

This work is based on a collaboration which started at the “Quantum Wave in Computing” 2020 spring program at the Simons Institute for the Theory of Computing. It was presented as a contributed talk at QIP 2021. Each author made significant contributions to the paper.

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This work was presented at QIP 2022, QCRYPT 2022, the ASIACRYPT Quantum Cryptography Workshop 2022, and ITCS 2023.

- James Bartusek, Dakshita Khurana, and Alexander Poremba. “Publicly-Verifiable Deletion via Target-Collapsing Functions.” In: *arXiv preprint arXiv:2303.08676* (2023).

This is a collaboration with James Bartusek and Dakshita Khurana, and came about after a visit to the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. In a joint effort, we developed new techniques which allowed us to prove the “strong Gaussian-collapsing conjecture,” a property of the Ajtai hash function which I posed in my paper above. To appear in CRYPTO 2023.

Chapter 5: This is based on the following work:

- Prabhanjan Ananth, Alexander Poremba, and Vinod Vaikuntanathan. “Revocable Cryptography from Learning with Errors.” In: *arXiv preprint arXiv:2302.14860* (2023).

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- [1] James Bartusek et al. *Weakening Assumptions for Publicly-Verifiable Deletion*. 2023. arXiv: [2304.09846](https://arxiv.org/abs/2304.09846) [quant-ph].
- [2] Alexandru Gheorghiu, Tony Metger, and Alexander Poremba. *Quantum cryptography with classical communication: parallel remote state preparation for copy-protection, verification, and more*. 2022. arXiv: [2201.13445](https://arxiv.org/abs/2201.13445) [quant-ph].
- [3] András Gilyén and Alexander Poremba. *Improved Quantum Algorithms for Fidelity Estimation*. 2022. arXiv: [2203.15993](https://arxiv.org/abs/2203.15993) [quant-ph].
- [4] Gorjan Alagic et al. “On Quantum Chosen-Ciphertext Attacks and Learning with Errors”. In: *Cryptography* 4.1 (2020). ISSN: 2410-387X. DOI: [10.3390/cryptography4010010](https://doi.org/10.3390/cryptography4010010). URL: <https://www.mdpi.com/2410-387X/4/1/10>.
- [5] Marco Cerezo et al. “Variational Quantum Fidelity Estimation”. In: *Quantum* 4 (Mar. 2020), p. 248. ISSN: 2521-327X. DOI: [10.22331/q-2020-03-26-248](https://doi.org/10.22331/q-2020-03-26-248). URL: <https://doi.org/10.22331/q-2020-03-26-248>.
- [6] Sumeet Khatri et al. “Quantum-assisted quantum compiling”. In: *Quantum* 3 (May 2019), p. 140. ISSN: 2521-327X. DOI: [10.22331/q-2019-05-13-140](https://doi.org/10.22331/q-2019-05-13-140). URL: <https://doi.org/10.22331/q-2019-05-13-140>.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

Quantum computers have the potential to completely transform disciplines such as physics and material science [47, 95]. While large-scale quantum computing is at least several decades away, the promise of quantum advantage has spurred an interest in developing quantum algorithms for problems in quantum chemistry, optimization, and machine learning. To this day, however, it is still unclear whether these areas admit exponential speed-ups for practically relevant problems [1, 94]. Moreover, due to the massive overhead required for quantum error-correction, it seems that mere polynomial speed-ups will not be of practical relevance for perhaps several decades to come [124].

Quantum cryptography has also received significant attention by both industry and academia in the advent of quantum key distribution (QKD) [29], which enables secure communication from the laws of physics alone. This is in contrast with conventional public-key encryption systems that require computational assumptions, such as the hardness of factoring, discrete log or worst-case lattice problems. While QKD is frequently criticised [118] for being less practical compared to classical post-quantum alternatives, recent advances in quantum cryptography have also given rise to entirely new primitives which have no classical counterpart. At the heart of these new primitives lies the *no-cloning principle* of quantum mechanics [135, 56] which stipulates that it is fundamentally impossible to copy an unknown quantum state. In his seminal work from the 1970s, Wiesner [132] proposed a quantum money scheme, wherein quantum states are used to construct banknotes that can be verified but cannot be counterfeited. Ever since this watershed moment, and especially so in recent years, a wide variety of so-called *unclonable* primitives [2, 4, 128, 27, 41, 40, 17, 70] have been studied and constructed. Due to its quantum nature, *unclonable cryptography* seems to offer an alternative path towards quantum advantage—entirely without computational speed-ups.

Following Wiesner’s work, Aaronson [2] introduced the idea of *public-key* quantum money as a means of generating unforgeable quantum banknotes that anyone (not just the bank) can verify. In the very same work, Aaronson also proposed the idea of *quantum copy-protection* to prevent software piracy. Ananth and La Placa [17] later introduced a weaker form of software protection called *secure software leasing* in which the quantum program is eventually returned and verified. Another line of work [75, 128, 40, 41] exploits no-cloning to protect ciphertexts from being replicated. Gottesman [75] proposed the notion of *unclonable encryption*—a concept that was recently revisited by Broadbent and Lord [41]. Unruh [128] gave a quantum timed-release encryption scheme that is *revocable*: it enables a user to return a timed-release encryption before some fixed amount of

time has passed, thereby losing all access to the data. Broadbent and Islam [40] constructed a quantum encryption scheme with *certified deletion* which is inspired by the QKD protocol [29, 122]. This cryptographic notion is made possible by the principle of complementarity of quantum mechanics, which ensures that one cannot measure two mutually incompatible observables at the same time. Contrary to Unruh’s [127] notion of revocable quantum ciphertexts, certificates of deletion are entirely classical. The security definition requires that, once a valid certificate is presented, the plaintext remains hidden even if the secret key is later revealed. Hiroka et al. [83] later constructed more advanced primitives with certified deletion; namely, public-key and attribute-based encryption. In later work, Bartusek and Khurana [23] considered generic transformations for encryption schemes with certified deletion. Building on the work of Broadbent and Islam [41], they use Wiesner’s conjugate coding to construct advanced encryption systems with the stronger notion of *certified everlasting security*, which allows the adversary to be unbounded once deletion is successful. A similar notion of everlasting security was previously considered by Hiroka et al. [82] who studied certified everlasting zero-knowledge proofs for QMA.

A recent series of works studied unclonable primitives in the context of advanced functionalities, such as digital signatures, decryption and pseudorandom functions. Ben-David and Sattath [27] proposed *quantum signature tokens* that prevent a recipient from signing more than one message at a time. Georgiou and Zhandry [70] considered unclonable decryption keys. Coladangelo et al. [53] constructed a copy-protection scheme for pseudorandom functions using *subspace coset states*, which can be seen as an extension of Wiesner’s conjugate coding technique.

Unlike in classical cryptography, where many fundamental (and even advanced) cryptographic primitives can be based solely on the hardness of lattice problems, primarily in the form of the *learning with errors* assumption [112], the situation is quite different in the world of unclonable cryptography. While some unclonable primitives are achievable information-theoretically in restricted settings, such as in the private-key setting [41, 40, 70, 23, 88] or with respect to weaker notions of software protection [52, 89, 42], most advanced primitives either require strong cryptographic assumptions [70, 54, 119], or rely on unproven conjectures [4, 136]. This is especially the case for unclonable primitives with strong *functionalities*, such as public-key quantum money [4, 136, 119], copy-protection of pseudorandom functions and digital signatures [54, 96] or unclonable decryption keys [70, 54] which require non-standard assumptions such as indistinguishability obfuscation [22] or extractable witness encryption [64]. On the contrary, unclonable primitives with more limited functionalities, such as weaker variants of public-key quantum money [110, 116], unclonable public-key encryption schemes [14] or public-key encryption schemes with certified deletion [23, 84] are achievable under standard assumptions, such as in the quantum random oracle model [34] or from the learning with errors assumption [112].

To this day, many unclonable primitives are still either directly [40, 41, 70] or indirectly [90, 82, 53] rooted in Wiesner’s conjugate coding technique, and can only achieve advanced functionalities when combined with strong building blocks from the world of classical cryptography. In particular, constructing advanced primitives such as public-key quantum money or copy-protection schemes from lattices remains a fundamental open problem in cryptography. This raises the following questions: Can we design advanced unclonable primitives using techniques that go beyond Wiesner’s conjugate coding approach? If so, is it possible to base these primitives on standard assumptions, such as the hardness of worst-case lattice problems? And lastly, is it possible to use quantum information to introduce new features to cryptographic primitives, beyond unclonability?

This thesis

In the past few decades, we have witnessed the birth of remarkable cryptographic primitives, such as secure multi-party computation [28], zero-knowledge proof systems [74, 98], and even fully homomorphic encryption [113, 66, 37]. However, despite a lot of progress, several fundamental problems still seem to remain out of reach for classical cryptography. For instance, can we use cryptography to prevent software piracy—a problem that accounts for billions of dollars of losses every year? Can we revoke decryption privileges from a network of users? Can we certify that user data stored on a remote cloud server has been deleted? Data protection, in particular, has become a major challenge in today’s age of cloud computing and artificial intelligence. Collectively, all of these problems amount to a single fundamental question, namely: how can we “revoke” sensitive information from an untrusted party? If the information at hand is represented in terms of classical bits, then such a task is clearly impossible to achieve on conventional digital computers.

The central goal of this thesis is to understand how to delegate and revoke privileges in a world in which quantum computers become widely available. We make progress on the following questions, in particular: Can we use the power of quantum states in order to encode useful information that can later be revoked? How can we go about formalizing the notion that certain privileges have been revoked? Is it possible to provide meaningful guarantees for revocation, particularly in the context of programs and decryption keys which offer additional functionalities? We show that quantum computers are uniquely capable at addressing all of these questions.

The framework: Revocable cryptography

This thesis continues a recent line of work in quantum cryptography dealing with revoking and certifiably deleting states in the form of ciphertexts and programs [127, 40, 70, 17, 82, 90, 23]. As part of a single unified framework which we call *revocable cryptography*, we show how to use quantum information to revoke large classes of programs, encrypted data, and even cryptographic keys under standard cryptographic assumptions, such as the worst-case hardness of lattice problems.

Outline

Let us now give a brief overview over each chapter and its contributions. We begin with Chapter 2, where we introduce some relevant background on quantum computing and lattices. The latter will especially be relevant for Chapter 4 and Chapter 5.

Revocable programs. In Chapter 3, we focus on the task of revoking programs. Here, we mainly consider the notion of *secure software leasing* (SSL) which was proposed by Ananth and La Placa [17] and captures the following scenario: an authority wishes to “lease” a program f (in the form of a quantum state r_f) to a user who is supposed to “return” the program at a later point in time. Once the supposed copy is returned and verified, the security property requires that the recipient can no longer compute f . Our contributions in this chapter are the following. First, we introduce a new operational security definition for SSL (Section 3.5) by means of a cryptographic security game which does not limit the adversary to performing the honest evaluation procedure. This allows us to significantly strengthen the original security definition introduced by Ananth and La Placa [17]. Second, we give an affirmative answer to a question which was posed by the authors; namely, is it possible to construct an SSL scheme for a simple class of programs from standard cryptographic assumptions? Our main result is an SSL scheme for a large class of evasive functions known as compute-and-compare programs. Here, we consider programs $CC \gg f-H$ which are specified by a function f and a string H within its range: on input G , $CC \gg f-H$ outputs 1, if $f(G) = H$, and 0 otherwise. Our construction is based on Wiesner’s conjugate coding technique, and can be instantiated with any cryptographic hash function. To prove the security of our SSL scheme, we have to resolve several technical hurdles; in particular, we have to show that the *monogamy of entanglement* persists, even if the adversary is allowed to interact with a random oracle (which may reveal additional information about the underlying quantum state). Finally, as a complementary result, we make a conceptual connection between unclonable encryption and quantum copy-protection; specifically, we show that we can generically convert any unclonable encryption scheme into a quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions, provided it has a mechanism for *wrong-key detection*. We observe that the latter property can easily be achieved by simply outputting a hash of the secret key.

Encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion. In Chapter 4, we focus on the problem of revoking encrypted data. Our results build on a cryptographic notion called *certified deletion*, which was proposed by Broadbent and Islam [40]. While this remarkable notion allows one to certify that a quantum ciphertext was deleted by an untrusted party, it offers no additional functionality. The following question, in particular, was left as open problem: can we enable a cloud server to compute on encrypted data, while also allowing the server to prove data deletion to a client? It is not obvious

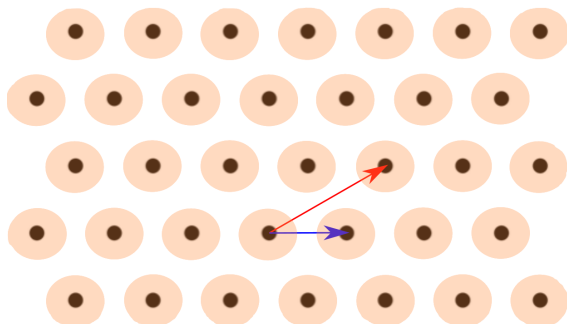


Figure 1.1: Primal Gaussian state.

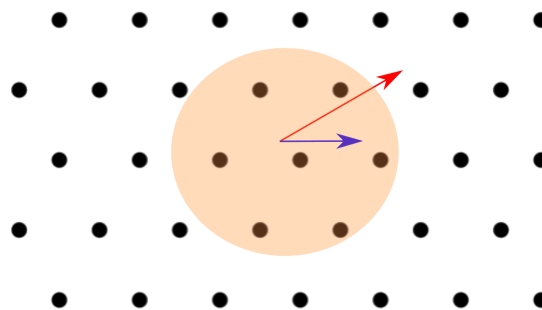


Figure 1.2: Dual Gaussian state.

that such a primitive even exists; for all we know, the server could just homomorphically compute a (secret) classical copy of the encrypted data. We give an affirmative answer to this question and construct the first fully homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion, assuming the subexponential hardness of learning with errors [112]. Our scheme has the desirable property that verification of a deletion certificate is completely *public*, meaning that anyone can verify whether deletion has taken place. Central to our construction is the (classical) Dual-Regev encryption scheme (and its variants), which was introduced by Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan [68]. Our techniques for constructing encryption schemes with certified deletion deviate significantly from the conjugate coding approach used by Broadbent and Islam [40]. Inspired by Regev’s reduction from worst-case lattice problems [112], we make use of so-called Gaussian superpositions over lattices, and apply them in the context of certified deletion. Our ciphertext consists of a superposition of Gaussian balls around “random” lattice points. We refer to this superposition as the *primal state* (see Figure 1.1). Depending on whether we encrypt $1 = 0$ or $1 = 1$, we additionally shift each noisy lattice point by an appropriate vector of large norm. By the learning with errors assumption, this computationally *hides 1*. Moreover, using trapdoor information, it is also possible to detect whether such a shift has occurred—thereby allowing one to “decrypt” and to recover the original bit. To enable certified deletion, we make use of the rich structure of Gaussian superpositions. We observe that, when applying the quantum Fourier transform to the primal state, we obtain a superposition over Gaussian-weighted vectors in the *dual lattice*. We call this superposition the *dual state* (see Figure 1.2). Moreover, by equipping the primal state with an appropriate complex phase, we can additionally guarantee that a measurement of the dual state produces a short vector in a *shift* of the dual lattice. We then ask: can such a short vector serve as a deletion certificate? At first sight, it seems as if the *principle of complementarity* in quantum mechanics would immediately prevent an adversary from being able to measure such a quantum state in two incompatible bases, say the computational basis and the Fourier basis. In our case, however, we are dealing with computational assumptions which further complicates the matter. We introduce several new proof techniques that generalize the notion of *collapsing hashes* [125] and allow us to prove a strong notion of certified

deletion. Finally, as a simple extension of our homomorphic encryption scheme, we describe a four-message protocol for FHE with simultaneous data deletion, which allows an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and to simultaneously prove data deletion to a client—all in a single interactive protocol.

Revoking cryptographic keys. In Chapter 5, we build on the no-cloning principle of quantum mechanics and design cryptosystems with key-revocation capabilities. Our contributions are the following. First, we present formal definitions of what it means to “return” a cryptographic key. Broadly speaking, our security notion guarantees that, once the secret key (in the form of quantum states) is revoked from a user, they no longer have the ability to perform the same functionality as before. Second, we construct several fundamental cryptographic primitives with key-revocation capabilities, namely pseudorandom functions, secret-key and public-key encryption, and even fully homomorphic encryption, assuming the hardness of lattice problems. To this end, we adopt many of the techniques we already used in Chapter 4. In particular, we use Gaussian superpositions to generate *quantum decryption keys* which are naturally compatible with the Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme. To prove the revocation security of our schemes, we have to overcome multiple technical hurdles. First, how can we efficiently check whether a state corresponds to a particular Gaussian superposition? This task is notoriously difficult and has remained a major bottleneck in previous attempts at constructing public-key quantum money schemes from lattices. Fortunately, in the context of key-revocation, we can perform such a verification check in private using appropriate trapdoor information (which is not known to the recipient of the decryption key). We construct an algorithm that allows one to *project* onto particular Gaussian state with access to a lattice trapdoor. Our procedure can be thought of as an explicit quantum reduction between the inhomogenous short integer solution problem [9] and the learning with errors problem [112]. Second, how can we use an adversary that can simultaneously pass revocation and still retain decryption privileges in order to break a computational assumption? During the reduction, we must necessarily simulate the entire security experiment; this includes the revocation phase as well. However, checking whether the returned state is valid requires a trapdoor which is not available during the reduction. It appears the security proof is stuck. We show how to overcome this barrier using techniques from the theory of *quantum rewinding* [100, 138]. Our main result is a simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary input, which is tailored towards the Dual-Regev scheme. Informally, our theorem says the following: any strategy that passes revocation (with overwhelming probability) and simultaneously retains its decryption privileges can be converted into an efficient extractor that can “extract” a decryption key from the adversary’s state. This crucial insight allows us to complete the reduction, and to base the security of our schemes on the hardness of the short integer solution and learning with errors problems—provided revocation succeeds with high probability.

Chapter 2

PRELIMINARIES

2.1 Notation.

We write negl^{ϵ} to denote any *negligible* function, which is a non-negative function f with the property that, for every constant $2 \leq N$, there exists $\epsilon \leq N$ such that for all $n \geq \epsilon$, $f(n) = o(1/n^2)$. Similarly, we write poly^{ϵ} to denote any polynomially bounded function f such that $f(n) = O(n^2)$.

We use the following norms:

- For $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, we denote the l_2 norm by $\|\mathbf{x}\|$.
- For $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, we denote by $\|\mathbf{M}\|$ the l_2 norm of the longest column of \mathbf{M} .
- For $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, we denote by $\|\mathbf{M}\|_2 = \sup_{\|\mathbf{x}\|=1} \|\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x}\|$ the operator norm.
- For $\mathbf{M} \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, we denote the trace norm by $\|\mathbf{M}\|_1 = \text{Tr} \sqrt{\mathbf{M}^H \mathbf{M}}$.

The Hellinger distance between two discrete probability distributions \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} over a finite domain is defined as the quantity,

$$d_H(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{Q}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\sum_i |\mathcal{P}(i) - \mathcal{Q}(i)|^2}.$$

The total variation distance between two random variables X and Y with domain \mathcal{X} is defined as

$$\|X - Y\|_{\text{TV}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i |\Pr[X=i] - \Pr[Y=i]|.$$

We denote the expectation value of a random variable X with domain \mathcal{X} by

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{G \in \mathcal{X}} G \Pr[X=G].$$

The notation $G \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{G}$ denotes sampling of G uniformly at random from a domain \mathcal{G} , whereas $G \stackrel{\mathcal{P}}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{G}$ denotes sampling of an element G according to the distribution \mathcal{P} .

Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and an integer modulus $m \geq 2$, we represent elements in the ring \mathbb{Z}_m^n as integers in the range $\mathbb{Z}^n \setminus [1, \frac{m-1}{2}]^n$. Let $\rho \in \mathbb{N}$. The rounding operation for $m \geq \rho \geq 2$ is the function

$$\text{round}_{\rho} : \mathbb{Z}_m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m : G \mapsto \lfloor \frac{m-1}{2} + \frac{G}{\rho} \rfloor \cdot \rho \pmod{m}.$$

2.2 Quantum Computation

For a comprehensive overview of quantum computation, we refer to the introductory texts [105, 133]. We denote a finite-dimensional complex Hilbert space by H , and we use subscripts to distinguish between different systems (or registers). For example, we let H_A be the Hilbert space corresponding to a system A . The tensor product of two Hilbert spaces H_A and H_B is another Hilbert space denoted by $H_{AB} = H_A \otimes H_B$. The Euclidean norm of a vector $|j\rangle \in H$ over the finite-dimensional complex Hilbert space H is denoted as $\|j\rangle\| = \sqrt{\langle j|j\rangle}$. Let $\mathcal{L}(H)$ denote the set of linear operators over H . A quantum system over the 2-dimensional Hilbert space $H = \mathbb{C}^2$ is called a *qubit*. For $n \geq 2$, we refer to quantum registers over the Hilbert space $H = \mathbb{C}^{2^n}$ as n -qubit states. More generally, we associate *qudits* of dimension $d \geq 2$ with a d -dimensional Hilbert space $H = \mathbb{C}^d$. For brevity, we sometimes write $H_3 = \mathbb{C}^3$, where H_3 is 3-dimensional. We use the word *quantum state* to refer to both pure states (unit vectors $|j\rangle \in H$) and density matrices $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H)$, where we use the notation $\mathcal{D}(H)$ to refer to the space of positive semidefinite matrices of unit trace acting on H . For convenience, we frequently consider *subnormalized states*, i.e., states in the space of positive semidefinite operators over H with trace norm not exceeding 1, denoted by $\mathcal{S}(H)$. The *trace distance* of two density matrices $\rho, \sigma \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ is given by

$$\|\rho - \sigma\|_{\text{tr}} = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \sqrt{(\rho - \sigma)^\dagger (\rho - \sigma)}.$$

We frequently use the compact notation $\rho \approx \sigma$ which means that there exists some $\epsilon > 0$ such that $\|\rho - \sigma\|_{\text{tr}} \leq \epsilon$. A *classical-quantum* (CQ) state $\rho \in \mathcal{D}(H_A \otimes H_B)$ depends on a classical variable in system A which is correlated with a quantum system B . If the classical system A is distributed according to a probability distribution p_X over the set X , then all possible joint states ρ_X can be expressed as

$$\rho = \sum_{x \in X} p_X(x) |x\rangle\langle x| \otimes \rho_x.$$

Quantum channels and measurements. A quantum channel $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{L}(H_A) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H_B)$ is a linear map between linear operators over the Hilbert spaces H_A and H_B . We use the compact notation \mathcal{E} to denote a quantum channel between $\mathcal{L}(H_A)$ and $\mathcal{L}(H_B)$. We say that a channel \mathcal{E} is *completely positive* if, for a reference system A' of arbitrary size, the induced map $\mathcal{E} \otimes \text{id}_{A'}$ is positive, and we call it *trace-preserving* if $\text{Tr}_B(\mathcal{E}(\rho)) = \text{Tr}_B(\rho)$, for all $\rho \in \mathcal{L}(H_A)$. A quantum channel that is both completely positive and trace-preserving is called a quantum CPTP channel. A *unitary* $U : \mathcal{L}(H_A) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H_B)$ is a special case of a quantum channel that satisfies $U^\dagger U = U U^\dagger = \mathbb{1}$. An isometry is a linear map $V : \mathcal{L}(H_A) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}(H_B)$ with $\dim H_A \leq \dim H_B$ and $V^\dagger V = \mathbb{1}$. A *projector* is a Hermitian operator P such that $P^2 = P$, and a *projective measurement* is a collection of projectors $\{P_\alpha\}$ such that $\sum_\alpha P_\alpha = \mathbb{1}$. A positive-operator valued measure (POVM) is a set of

Hermitian positive semidefinite operators $\{M_\beta\}$ acting on a Hilbert space H such that $\sum_\beta M_\beta = 1$. The diamond norm of a quantum channel $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{D}(H) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(H)$ is defined by

$$\|\mathcal{E}\|_\diamond = \max_r \|\mathcal{E}(r) - \mathcal{E}(1) \otimes r\|_1$$

where the maximization is over all $r \in \mathcal{D}(H \otimes H')$ and where H' is an arbitrary register.

Quantum algorithms. By a polynomial-time *quantum algorithm* (or QPT algorithm) we mean a polynomial-time uniform family of quantum circuits given by $C = \{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, where each circuit C_n is described by a sequence of unitary gates and measurements. Similarly, we also define (classical) probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT) algorithms. A quantum algorithm may, in general, receive (mixed) quantum states as inputs and produce (mixed) quantum states as outputs. Occasionally, we restrict QPT algorithms implicitly. For example, if we write $\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[1] = 1/4$ for a QPT algorithm \mathcal{A} , it is implicit that \mathcal{A} is a QPT algorithm that outputs a single classical bit.

We extend the notion of QPT algorithms to CPTP channels via the following definition.

Definition 1 (Efficient CPTP maps). *A family of CPTP maps $\mathcal{E}_n : \mathcal{D}(H_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(H_n)$ is called efficient, if there exists a polynomial-time uniformly generated family of circuits $\{C_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ acting on the Hilbert space $H_n = H \otimes H_n$ such that, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for all $r \in \mathcal{D}(H_n)$,*

$$\mathcal{E}_n(r) = \text{Tr}_{H_n} [C_n(r \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|_{H_n})] \otimes |0\rangle\langle 0|_{H_n}.$$

Definition 2 (Indistinguishability of ensembles of quantum states, [129]). *Let $q : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ be a polynomially bounded function, and let r_n and f_n be $q(n)$ -qubit quantum states. We say that $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ are quantum computationally indistinguishable ensembles of quantum states, denoted by $r_n \approx_c f_n$, if, for any QPT distinguisher D with single-bit output, any polynomially bounded $\epsilon : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, any family of $q(n)$ -qubit auxiliary states $\{a_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$, and every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,*

$$\Pr_{D, a_n} [D(r_n \otimes a_n) = 1] - \Pr_{D, a_n} [D(f_n \otimes a_n) = 1] \leq \epsilon(n).$$

We frequently use the following lemma.

Lemma 1 (“Almost As Good As New” Lemma, [3]). *Let $r \in \mathcal{D}(H)$ be a density matrix over a Hilbert space H . Let U be an arbitrary unitary and let $P_0, P_1 = 1 - P_0$ be projectors acting on $H \otimes H_{\text{aux}}$. We interpret $P_0 U^{-1}$ as a measurement performed by appending an ancillary system in the state $|0\rangle_{\text{aux}}$, applying the unitary U and then performing the measurement P_0 on the larger system. Suppose that the outcome corresponding to P_0 occurs with probability $1 - \epsilon$, for some $\epsilon \in (0, 1/4]$. In other words, it holds that $\text{Tr}_{\text{aux}} [P_0 U^{-1} r U |0\rangle\langle 0|_{\text{aux}}] = (1 - \epsilon)P_0$. Then,*

$$\|U r U^{-1} - P_0\|_1 \leq 2\epsilon.$$

where ϵ is the state after performing the measurement and applying U^{xy} , and after tracing out H_{aux} :

$$\epsilon = \text{Tr}_{aux} \left(\sum_{i,j} |i\rangle\langle j|_{aux} U^{xy} \rho \sum_{i,j} |j\rangle\langle i|_{aux} U^{xy} \right)$$

The following lemma is a quantum analogue of the standard union bound.

Lemma 2 (Quantum Union Bound, [62]). *Let $\rho \in D(H)$ be a state and let $P_1, \dots, P_n = 0$ be a sequence of (orthogonal) projections acting on H . Suppose that, for every $\delta \in (0, 1/4]$, it holds that $\text{Tr}(P_\delta \rho) \leq \delta Y_\delta$, for $Y_\delta \in (0, 1/4]$. Then, if we sequentially measure ρ with projective measurements P_1, \dots, P_n , the probability that all measurements succeed is at least*

$$\text{Tr}(\rho) \geq \prod_{\delta=1}^n (1 - 4\delta Y_\delta)$$

We also use the following lemma on the closeness to ideal states:

Lemma 3 ([Unruh2013], Lemma 10). *Let P be an arbitrary projector and let ρ be density matrix with $\text{Tr}(P\rho) = \delta$, for some $\delta > 0$. Then, there exists an ideal state ρ^{id} with the properties that*

- $\|\rho - \rho^{id}\|_{tr} \leq \frac{\delta}{\epsilon}$
- ρ^{id} is a mixture in the image of P , i.e., $\rho^{id} = \sum_{j \in \text{im}(P)} p_j |k_j\rangle\langle k_j|$ is a normalized state with $\sum_{j \in \text{im}(P)} p_j = 1$ and $p_j \geq 0$, for all j .

In other words, ρ^{id} is within trace distance δ/ϵ of the state ρ and lies in the image of P .

2.3 Classical and Quantum Entropies

We introduce a few basic notions of entropy – both in the classical and the quantum setting.

Classical entropies. Let X be a random variable with an arbitrary distribution \mathcal{P}_X over an alphabet \mathcal{X} . The *min-entropy* of X , denoted by $H_{\infty}(X)$, is defined by the following quantity

$$H_{\infty}(X) = -\log \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathcal{P}_X(x)$$

The *conditional min-entropy* of X conditioned on a correlated random variable Y is defined by

$$H_{\infty}(X|Y) = -\log \mathbb{E}_Y \left[\max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \mathcal{P}_X(x|Y) \right]$$

Lemma 4 (Leftover Hash Lemma, [80]). *Let $n < 2^N$ and ℓ a prime. Let \mathcal{P} be a distribution over \mathbb{Z}_ℓ^n and suppose that $H_{\infty}(X) \geq \log \frac{\ell}{2} - 2 \log \frac{1}{\epsilon} - \log \frac{1}{\delta}$ for $\delta > 0$, where X denotes a random variable with distribution \mathcal{P} . Then, the following two distributions are within total variance distance ϵ :*

$$\mathcal{P} \text{ and } \mathcal{U}_{\mathbb{Z}_\ell^n}$$

Quantum Entropies.

Definition 3 (Quantum min-entropy). Let \mathcal{A} and \mathcal{B} be two quantum systems and let $r \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{B})$ be any bipartite state. The min-entropy of \mathcal{A} conditioned on \mathcal{B} of the state r is defined as

$$\min_{\rho} \{ -\log_2 \text{Tr}(\rho_{\mathcal{A}}) : r \geq \rho \otimes \sigma_{\mathcal{B}} \}.$$

The conditional min-entropy of a CQ state $r_{\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}}$ captures the difficulty of guessing the content of a classical register \mathcal{A} given quantum side information \mathcal{B} . This motivates the following definition.

Definition 4 (Guessing probability). Let $r_{\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}} \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{B})$ be a CQ state, where \mathcal{A} is a classical register over an alphabet X and \mathcal{B} is a quantum system. Then, the guessing probability of \mathcal{A} given \mathcal{B} is defined as

$$P_{\text{guess}}^{\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}}(r) = \sup_{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}} \Pr\{G = \mathcal{A}\} = \max_{\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}}} \text{Tr}(\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} r_{\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}})$$

where $\mathcal{M}_{\mathcal{A}} \in \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$ is a POVM acting on \mathcal{A} .

The following operational meaning of min-entropy is due to Koenig, Renner and Schaffner [92].

Theorem 1 ([92], Theorem 1). Let $r_{\mathcal{A}\mathcal{B}} \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{A} \otimes \mathcal{B})$ be a CQ state, where \mathcal{A} is a classical register over an alphabet X and \mathcal{B} is a quantum system. Then, it holds that

$$\min_{\rho} \{ -\log_2 \text{Tr}(\rho_{\mathcal{A}}) : r \geq \rho \otimes \sigma_{\mathcal{B}} \} = \log_2 P_{\text{guess}}^{\mathcal{A}|\mathcal{B}}(r).$$

2.4 Fourier Analysis

Let $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{Z}$ be an integer modulus and let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The \mathcal{A} -ary (discrete) Fourier transform takes as input a function $f : \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and produces a function $\hat{f} : \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ (the Fourier transform of f) defined by

$$\hat{f}(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n} f(x) \omega_{\mathcal{A}}^{xy},$$

For brevity, we oftentimes write $\omega_{\mathcal{A}} = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{\mathcal{A}}}$ to denote the primitive \mathcal{A} -th root of unity. The \mathcal{A} -qudit \mathcal{A} -ary quantum Fourier transform over the ring \mathbb{Z}_n is defined by the operation,

$$\text{FT}_{\mathcal{A}} : |x\rangle \mapsto \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_n} \omega_{\mathcal{A}}^{xy} |y\rangle, \quad x \in \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

It is well known that the \mathcal{A} -ary quantum Fourier transform can be efficiently performed on a quantum computer for any modulus $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{Z}$ [79]. Note the quantum Fourier transform of a normalized quantum state

$$|x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_n} \omega_{\mathcal{A}}^{xy} |y\rangle \quad \text{with} \quad \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n} |x\rangle \langle x| = I_n.$$

for a function $f : Z^< \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$, results in the state (the Fourier transform of $|j\rangle$) given by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FT}_\omega |j\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \sum_{x \in Z^<} \omega^{-\frac{2c\delta}{\omega}hy-xi} f(x) |j\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\omega}} \sum_{y \in Z^<} \omega^{2Z^<} \hat{f}(y) |j\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Notice that the Fourier transform of $|j\rangle$ is *unitary* if $\text{supp}(f) \subseteq Z^< \setminus \{ \frac{\omega}{2}, \frac{\omega}{2} + 1 \}$. We frequently make use of the following standard identity for Fourier characters.

Lemma 5 (Orthogonality of Fourier characters). *Let $\omega \geq 2$ be any integer modulus and let $\omega = 4^{\frac{2c\delta}{\omega}} \in \mathbb{C}$ denote the primitive ω -th root of unity. Then, for arbitrary $G, H \in Z_\omega$:*

$$\frac{1}{\omega} \sum_{E \in Z_\omega} \omega^{EG} \omega^{EH} = \omega \chi_{G=H}.$$

2.5 Generalized Pauli Operators

Definition 5 (Generalized Pauli operators). *Let $\omega \geq 2$ be a modulus and $\omega = 4^{2c\delta \cdot \omega}$ be the primitive ω -th root of unity. The generalized ω -ary Pauli operators \mathbf{X}_ω^1 and \mathbf{Z}_ω^1 are given by*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}_\omega^1 &= \sum_{j \in Z_\omega} \omega^{j \cdot 1 \bmod \omega} |j\rangle\langle j| \quad \text{and} \\ \mathbf{Z}_\omega^1 &= \sum_{i \in Z_\omega} \omega^{i \cdot 1} |i\rangle\langle i|. \end{aligned}$$

For $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_{c-1}) \in Z_\omega^{c-1}$, we use the notation $\mathbf{X}_\omega^{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{X}_\omega^{b_1} \dots \mathbf{X}_\omega^{b_{c-1}}$ and $\mathbf{Z}_\omega^{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{Z}_\omega^{b_1} \dots \mathbf{Z}_\omega^{b_{c-1}}$.

Lemma 6. *Let $\omega \geq 2$ be an integer modulus. Then, for all $1 \in Z_\omega$, it holds that*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Z}_\omega^1 &= \text{FT}_\omega \mathbf{X}_\omega^1 \text{FT}_\omega^\dagger \\ \mathbf{X}_\omega^1 &= \text{FT}_\omega^\dagger \mathbf{Z}_\omega^1 \text{FT}_\omega. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. It suffices to show the first identity only as the second identity follows by conjugation with

FT_@. Using the orthogonality of Fourier characters over Z_@ (Lemma 5), we find that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{Z}_@^1 &= \sum_{G \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\frac{1}{@} \sum_{j \in Z_@} G^j \text{GihGj} \right) \\
 &= \sum_{G \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\frac{1}{@} \sum_{j \in Z_@} G^j \sum_{h \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\sum_{i \in Z_@} G^i \text{GihHj} \right) \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{@} \sum_{G \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\sum_{h \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\sum_{i \in Z_@} G^i \text{GihHj} \right) \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{@} \sum_{G \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\sum_{h \in Z_@} \tilde{O} \left(\sum_{i \in Z_@} G^i \text{GihHj} \right) \right) \\
 &= \text{FT}_@ \mathbf{X}_@^1 \text{FT}_@^y.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Definition 6 (Pauli-Z dephasing channel). Let @ ≥ 2 be an integer modulus and let < 2 N. Let p be a probability distribution over Z_@[<]. Then, the Pauli-Z dephasing channel with respect to p is defined as

$$\mathbf{Z}_@^p r^@ = \sum_{z \in Z_@} p_z \mathbf{Z}_@^z r \mathbf{Z}_@^{-z} \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{C}^{@ \times @}.$$

We use Z to denote the uniform Pauli-Z channel for which p is the uniform distribution over Z_@[<].

The following well-known lemma states that the uniform Pauli-Z channel on input r returns a diagonal state which consists of diagonal elements of r encoded in the standard basis. For completeness, we give a proof of the statement below.

Lemma 7 (Pauli-Z twirl). Let < @ 2 N. Then, the uniform Pauli-Z dephasing channel satisfies,

$$\mathbf{Z}_@^1 r^@ = \frac{1}{@} \sum_{z \in Z_@} \mathbf{Z}_@^z r \mathbf{Z}_@^{-z} = \sum_{x, y \in Z_@} \text{Tr}(r |x\rangle\langle x|) \frac{1}{@} \sum_{j \in Z_@} |x+j\rangle\langle x+j| \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{C}^{@ \times @}.$$

Proof. Suppose that the state r has the following form in the standard basis,

$$r = \sum_{x, y \in Z_@} U_{x, y} |x\rangle\langle y| \quad \forall U_{x, y} \in \mathbb{C}.$$

Using the orthogonality of Fourier characters over Z_ω (Lemma 5), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 Z^1 r^0 &= \sum_{z \in Z_\omega} \tilde{0} \cdot Z_\omega^z r Z_\omega^z \\
 &= \sum_{z \in Z_\omega} \sum_{x, y \in Z_\omega} U_{x-y} Z_\omega^z j x i h y j Z_\omega^z \\
 &= \sum_{x, y \in Z_\omega} U_{x-y} \sum_{z \in Z_\omega} | \omega^{hx-zi} / \omega^{hy-zi} |^a j x i h y j \\
 &= \sum_{x \in Z_\omega} U_{x-x} j x i h x j \\
 &= \sum_{x \in Z_\omega} \text{Tr} \gg j x i h x j r \ll j x i h x j \cdot
 \end{aligned}$$

□

2.6 Lattices and the Gaussian Mass

A *lattice* $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a discrete subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n . We will exclusively consider integer lattices $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$ throughout this thesis. The *dual* of a lattice $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, denoted by Γ^\vee , is the lattice of all vectors $h \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfy $h \cdot x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$, for all vectors $x \in \Gamma$. In other words, we define

$$\Gamma^\vee = \{ h \in \mathbb{R}^n : h \cdot x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ for all } x \in \Gamma \}.$$

Given a lattice $\Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and a vector $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define the coset with respect to t as the lattice shift $t + \Gamma = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x = t + g \}$. Note that many different shifts t can define the same coset.

ω -ary lattices. In this thesis, we mainly consider ω -ary lattices that satisfy $\omega \mathbb{Z}^n \subseteq \Gamma \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^n$, for some integer modulus $\omega \geq 2$. Specifically, we consider lattices generated by a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_\omega^{n \times n}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The first lattice consists of all vectors which are perpendicular to the rows of A , namely

$$\Gamma_1^0 = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : A x = \mathbf{0} \pmod{\omega} \}.$$

Note that Γ_1^0 contains $\omega \mathbb{Z}^n$; in particular, it contains the identity $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. For any *syndrome* $y \in \mathbb{Z}_\omega^n$ in the column span of A , we also consider the lattice coset Γ_1^y given by

$$\Gamma_1^y = \{ x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : A x = y \pmod{\omega} \} = \Gamma_1^0 + u$$

where $u \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ is an arbitrary integer solution to the equation $Au = y \pmod{\omega}$.

The second lattice is the lattice generated by A^\perp and is defined by

$$\Gamma_2^0 = \{ y \in \mathbb{Z}^n : y = A^\perp s \pmod{\omega} \text{ for some } s \in \mathbb{Z}^n \}.$$

The \mathbb{Z}_ℓ -ary lattices $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0$ and $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^{-1} \mathbf{A}^0$ are dual to each other (up to scaling). Specifically, we have

$$\ell \cdot \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{-1} \mathbf{A}^0 = \mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0 \quad \text{and} \quad \ell \cdot \mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0 = \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{-1} \mathbf{A}^0.$$

Whenever $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$ is full-rank, i.e., the subset-sums of the columns of \mathbf{A} generate $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$, then $\det \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{-1} \mathbf{A}^0 = \ell^n$. We use the following facts due to Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan [68].

Lemma 8 ([68], Lemma 5.1). *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $\ell \geq 2$ be a prime modulus with $n \leq \log \ell$. Then, for all but a $\frac{1}{\ell}$ fraction of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$, the subset-sums of the columns of \mathbf{A} generate $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$. In other words, a uniformly random matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$ is full-rank with overwhelming probability.*

Gaussians. The *Gaussian measure* $r_{\mathcal{F}}$ with parameter $\mathcal{F} \geq 0$ is defined as the function

$$r_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2}{2\mathcal{F}}\right) \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

A simple calculation shows that the Fourier transform of the Gaussian measure is another Gaussian with $\mathcal{F}_{\mathbf{t}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathcal{F}^{-n/2} r_{1/\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x})$. The *Gaussian mass* of \mathbf{t} is defined as the quantity

$$r_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{t}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} r_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{y} + \mathbf{t}) \, d\mathbf{y}.$$

The *discrete Gaussian distribution* $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{F}}$ assigns probability proportional to $4^{-\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 / \mathcal{F}}$ to every vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{t} + \mathbb{Z}^n$. In other words, we have

$$\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{t}, \mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{r_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x})}{r_{\mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{t})} \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{t} + \mathbb{Z}^n.$$

In particular, for any coset $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0$ with $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$, the discrete Gaussian $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{A}^0, \mathcal{F}}$ (centered around the origin) assigns probability proportional to $4^{-\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 / \mathcal{F}}$ to every vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0$, and 0 otherwise.

The following lemma follows from [106, Lemma 2.11] and [68, Lemma 5.3].

Lemma 9 ([68], Corollary 5.4). *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\ell \geq 2$ be a prime with $n \leq \log \ell$. Then, for all but a $\frac{1}{\ell}$ fraction of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$ and $\mathcal{F} = \frac{\ell^n}{\log \ell}$, the distribution of the syndrome $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{u} \pmod{\ell}$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_ℓ^n , where $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$.*

Lemma 10. *Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let ℓ be a prime with $n \leq \log \ell$. Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$ be a matrix whose columns generate $\mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$. Let $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^{\leq n}$ be arbitrary. Then, for any $\mathcal{F} = \frac{\ell^n}{\log \ell}$, there exists a negligible function $\gamma < 1$ such that*

$$\left| \frac{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{A}^0, \mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x})}{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{A}^0, \mathcal{F}}(\mathbf{x})} - \frac{1 + \gamma}{1 - \gamma} \right| \leq \frac{1 + \gamma}{1 - \gamma} \quad \text{for } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_\ell^1 \mathbf{A}^0.$$

We make use of the following tail bound for the Gaussian mass of a lattice [20, Lemma 1.5 (ii)].

Lemma 11. For any ℓ -dimensional lattice Λ and shift $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^\ell$ and for all $f \geq 0$, $2^{-1} c^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq f \leq 2 c^{\frac{1}{2}}$ it holds that

$$r_{f^{-1} \Lambda}(\mathbf{t}) \leq \frac{1}{f} r_{\Lambda}(\mathbf{t}) \leq 2 c^{\frac{1}{2}} r_{f^{-1} \Lambda}(\mathbf{t}).$$

where $B_{\mathbb{R}^\ell}(0, B) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^\ell : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq B\}$ denotes the ℓ -dimensional ball of radius $B \geq 0$.

The following lemma is a consequence of [101, Lemma 4.4] and [68, Lemma 5.3].

Lemma 12. Let $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and let q be a prime modulus with $\ell \leq \log q$. Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times \ell}$ be a matrix whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^ℓ . Then, for any $f = 1 + \frac{1}{q}$ and for any syndrome $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$:

$$\Pr_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell} \left(\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{f} \mid \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \right) = \text{negl}^{\ell}.$$

Definition 7 (Periodic Gaussian). Let $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$, let q be a modulus and let $f \geq 0$. The q -periodic Gaussian $r_{f,q}$ function is the periodic continuation of the Gaussian measure r_f , where

$$r_{f,q}(\mathbf{x}) = r_f(\mathbf{x}) \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}^\ell} \delta_{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{z}}.$$

For any complex-valued function $f : \mathbb{Z}^\ell \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ and integer lattice $\Lambda \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^\ell$, the well-known *Poisson summation formula* relates f to its Fourier transform \hat{f} over the dual lattice, i.e.,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \det(\Lambda)^{-1} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \Lambda^\vee} \hat{f}(\mathbf{y}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x}}.$$

We use the following variant of the formula which applies to Gaussians and q -ary lattices.

Lemma 13 (Poisson summation for Gaussians over q -ary lattices). Let q be a prime modulus and let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times \ell}$ be any matrix whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^ℓ . Let $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$ and $f \geq 0$. Then,

$$\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell} r_{f,q}(\mathbf{x}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \frac{f^{-\ell}}{q^\ell} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell} r_{\frac{f}{q} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{y}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{v}}.$$

Proof. Because $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times \ell}$ is a full-rank matrix, it holds that $\det(\mathbf{A}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\times$. Let $\mathbb{Z}_q^\ell / \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{u}$ be the lattice coset given by $\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{z}$, for some arbitrary solution $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$ with $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v} \pmod{q}$. Recall that the Fourier transform of the Gaussian measure satisfies

$$\mathcal{F} r_{f,q}(\mathbf{x}) = f^{-\ell} r_{\frac{f}{q} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{y}) \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^\ell.$$

Therefore, it follows from the Poisson summation formula that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} r_{f, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} &= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} r_{f, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{x}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{x}} \\
 &= \frac{f^d}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} r_{f, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{y}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \\
 &= \frac{f^d}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} r_{f, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{y}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \\
 &= \frac{f^d}{\det(\mathbf{A})} \sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^d} r_{f, \mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{y}) e^{2\pi i \mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{y}}.
 \end{aligned}$$

□

We use the following lemma due to Brakerski [36] which says that, whenever f is much smaller than the modulus m , the periodic Gaussian $r_{f, m}$ is close to the non-periodic (but truncated) Gaussian.

Lemma 14 ([36]). *Let $m \geq 2$ be a modulus and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \setminus \{0\}$. Let $f > 0$. Then,*

$$\left| \frac{r_{f, m}(\mathbf{x})}{r_f(\mathbf{x})} - 1 \right| \leq 2^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{f^2}{m^2}}.$$

A consequence of the tail bound in Lemma 11 is that the Gaussian distribution $r_{f, m}$ is essentially only supported on the finite set $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{f}\}$, which suggests the use of *truncation*.

Definition 8 (Truncated discrete Gaussian distribution). *Let $d \in \mathbb{N}$, $m \geq 2$ be an integer modulus and let $f > 0$ be a parameter. Then, the truncated discrete Gaussian distribution $r_{f, m}^{\text{trunc}}$ with finite support $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^d \setminus \{0\} : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{f}\}$ is defined as the density*

$$r_{f, m}^{\text{trunc}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{r_{f, m}(\mathbf{x})}{\sum_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}^d, \|\mathbf{y}\| \leq \frac{1}{f}} r_{f, m}(\mathbf{y})}.$$

We use the following *noise smudging* property of the discrete Gaussian.

Lemma 15 (Noise smudging, [57]). *Let $H > f > 0$. Then, the total variation distance between the distribution $r_{f, m}$ and $r_{f, H}$ is at most $H \cdot f$.*

Occasionally, we also use the following variant of noise smudging which allows us to bound the total variation distance between a truncated discrete Gaussian $r_{f, m}^{\text{trunc}}$ and its perturbation by a fixed vector $\mathbf{e}_0 \in \mathbb{Z}^d$.

Lemma 16 ([38], Lemma 2.4). Let $q \geq 2$ be a modulus, $n < 2N$ and $f \neq 0$. Then, for any $\mathbf{e}_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$,

$$\|\mathbf{e}_0\|_{TV} \leq 2^{-1} \frac{2c^{p-1}k\mathbf{e}_0\|}{f}.$$

We use the following technical lemma on the min-entropy of the truncated discrete Gaussian distribution, which we prove below.

Lemma 17. Let $n \geq 2N$ and let q be a prime with $n \geq 2 \log q$. Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ be a matrix whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^n . Then, for any $f \leq \frac{1}{4} \log q$, there exists a negligible $\epsilon < \epsilon$ such that

$$\max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq f}} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \geq 1 - \frac{\epsilon}{f}.$$

Proof. Suppose that $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ is a matrix whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^n , i.e., \mathbf{A} is full-rank. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq f}} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \\ & \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \sup_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \\ & \geq \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq f}} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \\ & \geq \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \max_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq f}} \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \frac{r_{\mathbf{f}^{-1}\mathbf{y}}}{r_{\mathbf{f}^{-1}\mathbf{0}}} \frac{1}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \end{aligned}$$

where $r_{\mathbf{f}^{-1}\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{x}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{x}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}}$. Using the fact that

$$\frac{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} \frac{e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}\|^2}{2f^2}}}{\sum_{\mathbf{z}' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} e^{-\frac{\|\mathbf{z}'\|^2}{2f^2}}} \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}}} \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ with $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q}$, and the fact that

$$\Pr_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} \left[\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \right] = \frac{r_{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}}{r_{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}}$$

we get that

$$\max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} \max_{\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}} \Pr_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} \left[\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \mid \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q} \right]$$

Because $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{\log q}}$, the claim then follows from Lemma 10 and Lemma 12. □

2.7 Cryptography

In this section, we review several definitions in cryptography.

Public-key encryption

Definition 9 (Public-key encryption). A public-key encryption (PKE) scheme $\text{PKE} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ with plaintext space \mathcal{M} is a triple of QPT algorithms consisting of a key generation algorithm KeyGen , an encryption algorithm Enc , and a decryption algorithm Dec .

$\text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon} : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{pk, sk\}$: takes as input $1-\epsilon$ and outputs a public key pk and secret key sk .

$\text{Enc}^{pk-\epsilon} : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{CT}$: on input the public key pk and plaintext $x \in \mathcal{M}$, outputs a ciphertext CT .

$\text{Dec}^{sk-CT} : \mathcal{CT} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \cup \{?\}$: on input the secret key sk and ciphertext CT , outputs $x \in \mathcal{M}$ or $?$.

Definition 10 (Correctness of PKE). For any $\epsilon \in [0, 1]$, and for any $x \in \mathcal{M}$:

$$\Pr_{pk, sk \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon}} \left[\text{Dec}^{sk-CT}(x) \neq x \right] < \epsilon$$

Definition 11 (IND-CPA security). Let $\text{PKE} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a PKE scheme and \mathcal{A} be a QPT adversary. We define the security experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(\text{PKE}, \epsilon)$ between \mathcal{A} and a challenger as follows:

1. The challenger generates a pair $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon}$, and sends pk to \mathcal{A} .

2. A sends a plaintext pair $(m_0, m_1) \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M}$ to the challenger.
3. The challenger computes $CT_1 = \text{Enc}^{pk}(m_0)$, and sends CT_1 to A .
4. A outputs a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, which is also the output of the experiment.

We say that the scheme is IND-CPA-secure if, for any QPT adversary A , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{A, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{ind-cpa}} := |\Pr[\text{Exp}_{A, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(0) = 1] - \Pr[\text{Exp}_{A, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(1) = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

The Short Integer Solution problem

The (inhomogenous) SIS problem was introduced by Ajtai [9] in his seminal work on average-case lattice problems. The problem is defined as follows.

Definition 12 (Inhomogenous SIS problem, [9]). Let $n < 2N$ be integers, let $q \geq 2$ be a modulus and let $V \geq 0$ be a parameter. The Inhomogenous Short Integer Solution (ISIS) problem is to find a short solution $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ with $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \leq V$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q}$ given as input a tuple $(\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 2N}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n)$. The Short Integer Solution (SIS) problem is a homogenous variant of ISIS with input $(\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 2N}, \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n)$.

Micciancio and Regev [103] showed that the SIS problem is, on the average, as hard as approximating worst-case lattice problems to within small factors. Subsequently, Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan [68] gave an improved reduction showing that, for parameters $n = \text{poly}(\lambda)$, $V = \text{poly}(\lambda)$ and prime $q \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{2n}{\log q}}$, the average-case $\text{SIS}_{=q, V}^{\leq}$ problem is as hard as approximating the shortest independent vector problem (SIVP) problem in the worst case to within a factor $W = V \cdot \frac{1}{\epsilon} \sqrt{\frac{2n}{\log q}}$. We assume that $\text{SIS}_{=q, V}^{\leq}$ for $n = \text{poly}(\lambda)$, $V = 2^{\lambda^c}$ and $q = 2^{\lambda^c}$, is hard against quantum adversaries running in time $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ with success probability $\text{poly}(\lambda)^{-c}$.

The Learning with Errors problem

The *Learning with Errors* problem was introduced by Regev [112] and serves as the primary basis of hardness of post-quantum cryptosystems. The problem is defined as follows.

Definition 13 (“Search” LWE, [112]). Let $n < 2N$, let $q \geq 2$ be a modulus and let $U \in [0, 1]^n$ be a parameter. The Learning with Errors (LWE) problem is to find a secret vector \mathbf{s} given as input a sample $(\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 2N}, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n)$ from the distribution $\text{LWE}_{=q, U}^{\leq}$, where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 2N}$ and $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ are uniformly random, and where $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ is sampled from the discrete Gaussian distribution.

Definition 14 (“Decisional” LWE, [112]). Let $n < 2N$ be integers, let $q \geq 2$ be a modulus and let $U \in [0, 1]^n$ be a parameter. The “decisional” Learning with Errors (DLWE) problem is to distinguish

between

$$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m} \text{ and } \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m \text{ such that } \mathbf{A}\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{b} \pmod{q}$$

where $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ is uniformly random and where $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ is a discrete Gaussian noise vector.

As shown in [112], the $\text{LWE}_{q, n, m, U}^<$ problem with parameter $U = \frac{p}{q}$ is at least as hard as approximating the shortest independent vector problem SIVP^0 to within a factor of $\beta = \frac{q}{p}$ in worst case lattices of dimension n . In this work we assume the subexponential hardness of $\text{LWE}_{q, n, m, U}^<$ which relies on the worst case hardness of approximating short vector problems in lattices to within a subexponential factor. We assume that the $\text{LWE}_{q, n, m, U}^<$ problem, for $n = \log q$, $m = 2^{n^c}$, $U = \frac{1}{2^{n^c}}$, is hard against quantum adversaries running in time $\text{poly}(q)$. We note that this parameter regime implies $\text{SIS}_{q, n, m}^<$ [120].

Trapdoors for lattices

We use the following *trapdoor* property for the LWE problem.

Theorem 2 ([102], Theorem 5.1). *Let $n < 2N$ and $q \geq 2N$ be a prime with $n = \log q$. There exists a randomized algorithm with the following properties:*

- $\text{GenTrap}_{n, m, q}^<$: on input n, m, q , returns a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and a trapdoor $\text{td}_{\mathbf{A}}$ such that the distribution of \mathbf{A} is negligibly (in the parameter n) close to uniform.
- $\text{Invert}_{n, m, q}^<$: on input $\mathbf{A}, \text{td}_{\mathbf{A}}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{s} \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{e} \pmod{q}$, where $k \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $\|\mathbf{e}\| \leq \frac{p}{q}$, returns \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{e} with overwhelming probability over $\mathbf{A} \leftarrow \text{GenTrap}_{n, m, q}^<$.

Chapter 3

REVOKING UNCLONABLE PROGRAMS

In this chapter, we investigate the following question: can we use the no-cloning principle of quantum mechanics and encode a program in such a way that it can be evaluated, yet it cannot be *pirated*? Naturally, we would also like to ensure that, once the program is “returned,” the recipient loses its ability to evaluate it. Our main result is secure software leasing (SSL) scheme for a large class of evasive functions known as compute-and-compare programs.

Organization. First, we focus our attention on the notion of quantum copy-protection which was proposed by Aaronson [2] as a means of software protection. In Section 3.3, we present a formal definition of what a copy-protection scheme is. Then, in Section 3.4, we construct a quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions. In the second half of the chapter, we consider the weaker notion of secure software leasing (SSL) which was proposed by Ananth and La Placa [17]. In Section 3.5, we give a formal definition of what an SSL scheme is. Then, in Section 3.6, we construct an SSL scheme for single-bit point functions. Finally, in Section 3.6, we prove our main result; namely, we give an SSL scheme for compute-and-compare programs as a simple extension of our SSL scheme for single-bit point functions.

3.1 Introduction

Aaronson [2] initiated the formal study of quantum copy-protection schemes, and speculated that quantum cryptography could offer a solution to software piracy thanks to the no-cloning theorem. Copy-protection captures the following cryptographic task. A vendor wishes to encode a program in such a way that a user who receives the encoded program is able to run it on arbitrary inputs. However, the recipient should not be able to create functionally equivalent “pirated” copies of the original program. More concretely, no user should be able to process the encoded program so as to split it into two parts, each of which allows for the evaluation of the function implemented by the original program. Rigorous copy-protection of any kind is trivially impossible to achieve classically. This is because any information that the user receives can simply be copied. In the quantum realm, however, the no-cloning theorem prevents any naive copying strategy from working unconditionally, and copy-protection seems, at least in principle, possible. The key question then becomes: *Is it possible to encode functionality into a quantum state while at the same time preserving the no-cloning property?*

To be precise, we are not satisfied with preventing an adversary from copying the state that encodes

the program (this is certainly a necessary condition), but we also require that there is no other way for a (computationally bounded) user to process the state into two parts (not necessarily a copy of the original) so as to allow each half to recover the input-output behaviour of the encoded program.

Quantum copy-protection was first formalized by Aaronson [2]. One of the first observations there is that families of *learnable* functions cannot be copy-protected: access to a copy-protected program, and hence its input-output behaviour, allows one to recover a classical description of the program itself, which can be copied. In [2], Aaronson provides some formal definitions and constructions of copy-protection schemes. More precisely, Aaronson describes:

- A provably secure scheme to copy-protect any family of efficiently computable functions which is not quantumly learnable, assuming a *quantum* oracle implementing a certain family of unitaries.
- Two candidate schemes to copy-protect point functions in the plain model, although neither of the two features a proof of security.

In recent work [5], Aaronson et al provide a scheme to copy-protect any family of efficiently computable functions which is not quantumly learnable, assuming access to a *classical* oracle, i.e., an oracle (which can be queried in superposition) that implements a classical function. We emphasize, however, that this classical function is *dependent* on the function that one wishes to copy-protect. In particular, the oracle is impossible to realize in general, as it implies an ideal obfuscator for the function f that is being copy-protected, and is thus very strong. In particular, the following questions were left open in [2]: Does there exist a scheme to copy-protect any non-trivial family of functions (the simplest example being point functions) with provable security in the plain model using standard assumptions? What about larger classes of programs?

On the negative side, aside from the impossibility of copy protecting families of learnable functions, it has remained an open question to determine whether a more general impossibility result applies. In a recent result, Ananth and La Placa [17] prove that a universal copy-protection scheme cannot exist, assuming the quantum hardness of the learning with errors problem [111] and the existence of quantum fully homomorphic encryption.

On top of proving the impossibility of a general copy-protection scheme for all unlearnable functions, Ananth and La Placa introduce in [17] a weaker notion of copy-protection, which they call “secure software leasing” ¹SSL^o. The sense in which the latter is weaker than copy-protection is that one assumes that the freeloaders B and C (now a single adversary) are limited to performing the honest evaluation procedure only. Rather than emphasizing the impossibility of simultaneous

evaluation on inputs chosen by a challenger, SSL captures the essence of quantum copy-protection in the following scenario. An authority (the lessor) wishes to lease a copy r_f of a function $f \in \mathcal{F}_n$ to a user (the lessee) who is supposed to return back r_f at a later point in time, as specified by the lease agreement. Once the program copy is “revoked” and verified by the lessor, the security property requires that the adversary can no longer compute f . More formally, no adversary should be able to produce a (possibly entangled) quantum state such that:

- One half of the state is deemed valid by the lessor, once it is returned.
- The other half can be used to honestly evaluate f on every input of the adversary’s choosing.

Surprisingly, Ananth and La Placa were able to show in [17] that a general SSL scheme is also impossible, despite having weaker security requirements compared to copy-protection. On the positive side, the authors describe an SSL scheme for general evasive circuits assuming the existence of subspace-hiding obfuscators [137] and the quantum hardness of the learning with errors problem [111]. Because subspace-hiding obfuscators are only known to exist under indistinguishability obfuscation [137, 117], the same applies to the security of the scheme proposed in [17]. A key question, in particular, which their work left open is the possibility that one can construct SSL for more primitive classes of programs under standard cryptographic assumptions.

Our contributions

Let us now give an overview of our results.

Quantum copy-protection. We approach the task of quantum copy-protection from the positive side; specifically, we give a copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions and we prove its security in the so-called quantum random oracle model – a standard cryptographic assumption. Our construction can be instantiated with any cryptographic hash function, for example using SHA-3.

A desirable feature of our scheme is that the copy-protected program does not involve multi-qubit entanglement – in fact it only involves BB84 states and computational and Hadamard basis measurements. This is in contrast to previous candidate schemes for point functions in [2], whose security is only conjectured, and which employ highly entangled states. The simple structure of the copy-protected program is advantageous for, e.g., error-corrected storage of the copy-protected program. We point out, however, that in a practical implementation of our scheme, where the oracle is replaced by a hash function, evaluation of the copy-protected program on an input requires *coherently* computing the hash function in an auxiliary register. This operation requires universal quantum computation.

Our scheme is not in the plain model. The (quantum) random oracle model, however, enjoys widespread acceptance and popularity in (post-quantum/quantum) cryptography, and many schemes designed for, and deployed in, practical applications enjoy provable security in that model only. Our security definition is essentially analogous to the original definition in [2] but differs more significantly from the more recent definition in [5], which is weaker. In Section 3.3, we give a more detailed comparison of our definition with the ones in [2] and [5].

Our techniques and construction are inspired by recent work on *unclonable encryption* by Broadbent and Lord [41]. The main technical ingredient on which their construction relies are *monogamy of entanglement games*, introduced and studied extensively in [123], which they combine with an adaption of the one-way-to-hiding (O2H) lemma of [127] for a security analysis in the quantum random oracle model. In a nutshell, (a special case of) the latter lemma allows one to upper bound the probability that an algorithm outputs $^{-1}G^{\circ}$, where \cdot is a random oracle and G is any string in the domain, in terms of the probability that the algorithm “queries” at G at some point during its execution. The adaption of [41] extends the applicability of the O2H lemma to a setting that involves *two players*, and upper bounds the probability that the two (possibly entangled) players *simultaneously* guess $^{-1}G^{\circ}$ by the probability that they both query at G at some point during the execution of their respective strategies.

A sketch of our copy-protection scheme

Our quantum copy-protection scheme allows a software vendor to encode a multi-bit point function in such a way that it can be evaluated on any input, yet it cannot be pirated. More specifically, we consider the class of functions of the form $\%_{H-\langle}$, for some strings $H-\langle 2 f0-1g-$ with

$$\%_{H-\langle}^{-1}G^{\circ} = \begin{cases} \times\infty < & \text{if } G = H-\langle \\ \cdot\%0- & \text{if } G < H-\langle \end{cases}$$

Multi-bit point functions can potentially serve as *password authentication* programs, since the recipient of the program can easily check whether a given input matches a hidden password H , and additionally learn a message \langle if the password is correct. Naturally, we require that both the password and the message have sufficient amounts of entropy.

Our construction is inspired by recent work on *unclonable encryption* by Broadbent and Lord [41] which revisits the cryptographic notion first proposed by Gottesman [75]. In an unclonable encryption scheme, one encrypts a *classical* message in a *quantum* ciphertext, in such a way that the latter cannot be processed and *split* into two parts such that each half, together with a classical secret key, enables decryption. The setting of unclonable encryption is very similar to that of copy-

protection, the main difference being that there is no “functionality” associated to the quantum ciphertext, other than it being used for recovering the encrypted message.

Our simple observation is that any *unclonable encryption* scheme can be generically turned into a quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions as follows. To copy-protect a function $f_{H,\langle}$, simply encrypt the message \langle with the secret key H . Then, provided there exists a mechanism for *wrong-key detection*, this already achieves our goal: to evaluate at point G , attempt to decrypt using G ; if decryption succeeds output the decrypted message, if decryption fails, output 0 . We observe that any unclonable encryption scheme can be easily upgraded to achieve wrong-key detection in the QROM, thereby yielding the desired copy-protection scheme. Our notion of wrong-key detection for quantum encryption schemes is inspired by the work of Canetti et al. [46] who previously introduced a similar property for classical encryption schemes.

To illustrate how we can construct a copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions from any unclonable encryption, we now consider a concrete example. This follows the unclonable encryption scheme from Broadbent and Lord [41] which itself is rooted in Wiesner’s conjugate coding scheme [132]. The basic idea is that it is possible to encrypt a message $\langle \in \{0,1\}^B$ by sampling a random string $A \in \{0,1\}^B$ and by making λ uniformly random choices of basis (either computational or Hadamard) which we denote by $\lambda \in \{0,1\}^B$. Then, one can encode each bit of the one-time padded message $\langle \oplus A$ either in the computational or the Hadamard basis, according to λ . Formally, letting $k := \langle A \oplus \lambda \rangle$ denote the secret key, this amounts to preparing the following quantum ciphertext on λ many qubits:

$$\text{Enc}_{k,\langle} = \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^B} |j\rangle \langle A \oplus \lambda | j \rangle \langle A \oplus \lambda |$$

where we use the notation $|j\rangle = \sum_{i_1} |i_1\rangle \dots \sum_{i_B} |i_B\rangle$ and $\langle j| = \sum_{i_1} \langle i_1| \dots \sum_{i_B} \langle i_B|$, for $j \in \{0,1\}^B$. Given the key $k := \langle A \oplus \lambda \rangle$ and ciphertext, one can easily “decrypt” and recover the string \langle by first measuring each qubit of $\text{Enc}_{k,\langle}$ in the basis specified by λ , and then uncomputing the one-time pad specified by A . We now show how to bootstrap such an encryption scheme into a copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions as follows. The basic idea is the following. To copy-protect $f_{H,\langle}$, simply hand out $\text{Enc}_{H,\langle}$ with $H = k := \langle A \oplus \lambda \rangle$ together with some classical information that enables an evaluator to “recognize” an incorrect key. One can take the latter information to be $\langle H \rangle$, for some hash function \langle (or a uniformly random function \langle , if one works in the random oracle model). Then, to evaluate the program on some input G , the evaluator first checks whether $\langle G \rangle$ matches the hash $\langle H \rangle$. If not, the evaluator will conclude that the output is 0 . Otherwise, if true, the evaluator can simply “decrypt” $\text{Enc}_{H,\langle}$ as before. If the output length of the hash function is sufficiently large, say 2ℓ , the resulting scheme achieves the aforementioned wrong-key detection property with overwhelming probability by a standard birthday bound.

Copy-protection security. Before we expand on the technical hurdles we encounter when proving the security of our copy-protection scheme, let us first formalize the property in a bit more detail. We say that a quantum copy-protection scheme is *secure* for a family of functions F_ω (as well as a distribution D over F_ω) if no adversary ${}^1A-B-C^\circ$ —consisting of a triple of quantum polynomial time algorithms: a “pirate” A , say Alice, and two “freeloaders” B and C , say Bob and Charlie—can succeed with sufficiently high (i.e., non-trivial) probability at the following game:

- A receives a copy-protected program r_ω from the challenger (where the program $\omega \in F_\omega^\circ$ is sampled from some distribution D_{F_ω}). Next, A creates a bipartite state on registers B and C , and sends B to B and C to C .
- The challenger samples a pair ${}^1G_1-G_2^\circ$ of inputs to ω from a suitable challenge distribution (which is allowed to depend on ω), and sends G_1 to B and G_2 to C .
- B and C , who are not allowed to communicate, return bits t_1 and t_2 , respectively.
- ${}^1A-B-C^\circ$ win if $t_1 = \omega(G_1)$ and $t_2 = \omega(G_2)$.

The security of the aforementioned unclonable encryption scheme (and, by implication, the security of our copy-protection scheme) crucially leverages the following property: it is impossible for any pirate who has the ciphertext but does not know ω nor A , to produce a state on two registers BC such that two “freeloaders,” say Bob and Charlie, with access to registers B and C , respectively, *as well as* access to ω and A , can simultaneously recover ω . Note that the latter property crucially holds even when both Bob and Charlie are *simultaneously* receiving ω and A . This property is essentially a consequence of the *monogamy of entanglement* and is captured formally in [123, 41] via the study of monogamy of entanglement games. In particular, a rephrasing of the results of [123] is that, for any (unbounded) strategy of Alice, Bob and Charlie, the probability that both Bob and Charlie are able to simultaneously recover ω is exponentially small in n .

Unfortunately, our proof of security does not immediately follow from the security of the underlying unclonable encryption scheme, mainly due to the fact that the encoded program $\text{Enc}_H^1 \omega^\circ$ also consists of the classical hash ${}^1H^\circ$ which further complicates the matter. To show security of our scheme, it suffices to argue that the security of the underlying unclonable encryption scheme is preserved, even if the adversary additionally receives as input a classical hash ${}^1H^\circ$ which depends on the key of the quantum ciphertext. To carry out the security reduction, we use a variant of the so-called one-way-to-hiding (O2H) lemma [127] due to Unruh. This allows us to obtain an upper bound on the probability that an adversary distinguishes ${}^1H^\circ$ from a uniformly random string in the co-domain of H , in terms of the probability that such an adversary queries the oracle at H .

We prove the following result, which is a consequence of Lemma 18 and Theorem 3.

Theorem (Informal). *Assuming unclonable-secure quantum encryption schemes exist, there exists a quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-point functions which is secure against arbitrary challenge distributions in the quantum random oracle model.*

Next, we consider the notion of secure software leasing.

Secure software leasing

As we mentioned earlier, the original definition of secure software leasing in [17] is a weaker version of copy-protection in the following two ways:

- The lessor performs a prescribed verification procedure on a register returned by the lessee.
- The lessee is required to perform the honest evaluation procedure with respect to any post-verification registers in the lessee’s possession.

We revisit the notion of secure software leasing from a similar perspective as in our copy-protection definition. Our main contributions are the following. First, we introduce a new and intuitive SSL definition (Section 3.5) by means of a cryptographic security game which does not limit the adversary to performing the honest evaluation on any post-verification registers. Informally, any SSL scheme $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Gen} \cdot \text{SSL} \cdot \text{Lease} \cdot \text{SSL} \cdot \text{Eval} \cdot \text{SSL} \cdot \text{Verify}^0$ according to our definition should satisfy the following property. After receiving a leased copy of f , denoted by r_f (and generated using $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Lease}$), and a circuit for $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Eval}$, no adversary should be able to produce a (possibly entangled) quantum state \mathcal{F} on two registers R_1 and R_2 such that:

- $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Verify}$ deems the contents of register R_1 of $\mathcal{F}_{R_1 R_2}$ to be valid, and
- the adversary can predict the output of circuit f (on challenge inputs chosen by the lessor) using an arbitrary measurement of the post-verification state in register R_2 .

Our definition remains faithful to the idea of secure software leasing from [17], while at the same time offering a stronger security guarantee.

Second, we show that our definition of security is achievable with a standard negligible security bound in the quantum random oracle model for the class of compute-and-compare programs [131,

¹The SSL definition in [17] is not “operational” and cannot be directly phrased as a security game.

76]. A compute-and-compare program $CC \gg \mathcal{H} \cdot H$ is specified by an efficiently computable function $f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ and a string $H \in \{0,1\}^m$ in its range, where

$$CC \gg \mathcal{H} \cdot H \cdot G^\circ = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } f(G^\circ) = H \\ \geq 0 & \text{if } f(G^\circ) < H \\ \vdots & \end{cases}$$

Note that point functions are a special case of compute-and-compare programs where the function f is the identity map. We show how to lease $CC \gg \mathcal{H} \cdot H$ in the following simple way: the encoded program consists of (a description of) a function f in the clear, together with a quantumly encoded version of the point function with marked input H . The intuition is that it is enough to protect the marked input H in order to render $CC \gg \mathcal{H} \cdot H$ unclonable. At first, it might seem surprising that one can give f in the clear while preserving unclonability, as the encoded program now leaks significantly more information than its input/output behavior alone. At a second thought, however, it is in fact quite natural that one can render a functionality “unclonable” by just making some sufficiently important component of it unclonable. Indeed, it is straightforward to show that the SSL security of the extended construction reduces to the SSL security of the underlying point function scheme.

In Section 3.5 we show the following key property about our SSL scheme in Construction 4: once a leased copy is successfully returned to the lessor, no adversary can distinguish the marked input of a compute-and-compare program from a random (non-marked) input with probability better than $1/2$, except for a negligible advantage. We prove the following in Theorem 5.

Theorem (Informal). *There exists an SSL scheme for compute-and-compare programs which is secure against a natural class of input challenge distributions in the quantum random oracle model.*

The result follows from a standard application of the O2H lemma and a particular “uncertainty relation” variant of the monogamy of entanglement property which appeared in a work of Unruh [127]. The latter appears in similar contexts in the quantum key-distribution literature. Note that the technical complications arising in the proof of security of our original copy-protection scheme do not appear in the SSL security proof. Crucially, this is because we can leverage the fact that the lessor is performing a prescribed verification procedure.

Related work

Unclonable encryption. This cryptographic functionality was formalized recently by Broadbent and Lord [41], and informally introduced earlier by Gottesman [75]. In an unclonable encryption scheme, one encrypts a *classical* message in a *quantum* ciphertext, in such a way that the latter cannot be processed and *split* into two parts, each of which, together with a classical secret key,

enables decryption. The setting of unclonable encryption is very similar to that of copy-protection, the main difference being that there is no “functionality” associated to the quantum ciphertext, other than it being used for recovering the encrypted message. As we mentioned earlier, our copy-protection scheme is inspired by the unclonable encryption scheme in [41], and our analysis extends some of the techniques developed there.

Revocable quantum timed-release encryption. Timed-release encryption (also known as time-lock puzzles) is an encryption scheme that allows a recipient to decrypt only after a specified amount time, say t , has passed. Unruh [127] gave the first quantum timed-release encryption scheme that is “revocable” in the sense that a user can return the timed-release encryption before time t , thereby losing all access to the data. It is easy to see that this notion is impossible to achieve classically for precisely the same reason copy-protection is impossible: any adversary can simply generate copies of the classical ciphertext or source code, respectively. From a technical point of view, revocable quantum timed-release encryption shares many similarities with the notion of “secure software leasing” in [17]. Besides the fact that the former encodes a *plaintext* and the latter encodes a *program*, the security property essentially remains the same: once a quantum state is returned and successfully verified, the user is supposed to lose all relevant information. Our proof of security for the SSL scheme in Construction 3 is inspired by Unruh’s proof for revocable one-way timed-release quantum encryption in [127].

Open questions

Our work is the first to construct a copy-protection scheme in a standard cryptographic model (the QROM). It leaves several questions open. The most pressing ones are the following.

- First, is it possible to extend the security of quantum copy-protection schemes towards multiple copies? In other words, the pirate receives n copy-protected copies of a program, and we ask $n - 1$ freeloaders to succeed. We believe that our scheme can achieve such a notion, but with a security that becomes worse as n grows. Providing a scheme where security does not depend on n is an interesting open question.
- Second, is it possible to remove the requirement of a random oracle, and to achieve a scheme with non-trivial security against malicious adversary in the plain model? We think that this would require fundamentally different techniques.

Subsequent work

We remark that a series of subsequent works have meanwhile improved on some of our results on copy-protection and secure software leasing. Broadbent et al. [42] showed how to construct an

information-theoretic SSL scheme for compute-and-compare programs from any quantum message authentication code. This improves on our SSL scheme in Construction 3 which relies on the quantum random oracle heuristic. Using *subspace coset states* rather than BB84 states, Ananth et al. [18] obtained a quantum copy-protection for single-bit point function which achieves the standard notion of *negligible adversarial security* in the QROM. This is significantly more challenging to achieve and involves advanced techniques.

3.2 Preliminaries

We now review some technical background which is required for our constructions.

Monogamy of entanglement games

For a detailed introduction to monogamy-of-entanglement games, we refer the reader to the seminal paper on the topic [123], where they were introduced and studied extensively. In this section, we limit ourselves to introducing a version of a monogamy-of-entanglement game that suffices for our purpose. Let $n \geq 2$. The game is between a challenger and an adversary, specified by a triple of interactive quantum machines $\{A, B, C\}$ (for a formal definition of interactive quantum machine we refer the reader to [126]). For brevity, we use the notation $|G^i\rangle = \sum_j |j\rangle |G^i_j\rangle$, where $|G^i\rangle = |G^i_1\rangle \dots |G^i_n\rangle$ and $|G^i_j\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^{\ell_j}}$. The game takes place as follows:

1. The challenger samples $|G^0\rangle \in \mathbb{C}^{2^{\ell_0}}$ and sends the state $|G^0\rangle$ to A.
2. A sends a quantum register to B and one to C.
3. The challenger sends $|G^0\rangle$ to both B and C.
4. B and C return strings G^0 and G^0 to the challenger.

The players A, B and C are not allowed to communicate other than where specified by the game. Finally, A-B-C win if $G = G^0 = G^0$.

The following lemma, from [123], upper bounds the winning probability of an adversary in the game. As stated in the form below, this lemma appears in [41].

Lemma 1 ([41], Theorem 1). *Let $n \geq 2$ be a parameter. For any Hilbert spaces H_B and H_C , any families of POVMs on these Hilbert spaces, respectively,*

$$\left\{ \begin{matrix} G^0 \\ |G^0_{2^{\ell_0-1}q-1}\rangle \dots |G^0_{2^{\ell_0-1}q}\rangle \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \text{and} \quad \left\{ \begin{matrix} G^0 \\ |G^0_{2^{\ell_0-1}q-1}\rangle \dots |G^0_{2^{\ell_0-1}q}\rangle \end{matrix} \right\}$$

and any CPTP map $\mathcal{E} : \mathbb{C}^{2^{\ell_0}} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^{2^{\ell_0}} \otimes H_B \otimes H_C$, we have:

$$\mathbb{E}_{|G^0\rangle} \mathbb{E}_{|G^0\rangle} \text{Tr} \left[\sum_j |G^0_j\rangle \langle G^0_j| \mathcal{E}(|G^0\rangle) \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2^{\ell_0}}. \quad (3.1)$$

The quantum random oracle model

Oracles with quantum access have been studied extensively, for example in [30, 34]. We say that a quantum algorithm A has oracle access to a classical function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$, denoted by A^f , if A is allowed to use a unitary gate U_f at unit cost in time. The unitary U_f acts as follows on the computational basis states of a Hilbert space $H_A \otimes H_B$ of $n + m$ qubits:

$$U_f : |x\rangle_A |y\rangle_B \mapsto |x\rangle_A |y \oplus f(x)\rangle_B$$

where the operation \oplus denotes bit-wise addition modulo 2. In general, we can model the interaction of a quantum algorithm that makes q queries to an oracle f as $U^q U_f^q$, i.e., alternating unitary computations and queries to the oracle f , where U is some operator acting on $H_A \otimes H_B \otimes H_C$, where H_C is some auxiliary Hilbert space [30, 34, 127]. We call a (possibly super-polynomial-time) quantum algorithm A with access to an oracle f *query-bounded* if A makes at most polynomially many (in the size of its input) queries to f . The *random oracle* model refers to a setting in which the function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ is sampled uniformly at random. Random oracles play an important role in cryptography as models for cryptographic hash functions in the so-called random oracle model (ROM) [26]. For post-quantum and quantum cryptography, random oracles modelling hash functions need to be *quantum* accessible (i.e., accessible as a unitary gate, and thus in superposition), resulting in what is known as the quantum random oracle model (QROM) [34]. Despite being uninstantiable in principle [44, 60], modeling hash functions in the (Q)ROM is considered a standard assumption in cryptography.

Some technical lemmas

Below, we denote by $\text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow m}$ the set of functions from $\{0, 1\}^n$ to $\{0, 1\}^m$.

Lemma 2. *Let $f: \text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $G \in \text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow n}$. For $h \in \text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow m}$ and $H \in \text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow m}$, let $g_H \in \text{Bool}^1_{n \rightarrow m}$ be such that*

$$g_H \circ H = \begin{cases} f \circ h & \text{if } H \neq G \\ f \circ G & \text{if } H = G \end{cases}$$

Then,

$$\mathbb{E} [f \circ h] = \mathbb{E} [f \circ G] + \mathbb{E} [f \circ h - f \circ G]$$

Proof. The proof is straightforward, and can be found in Lemma 19 of [41]. □

²We can choose the algorithm's unitaries between oracle calls to be all the same by introducing a "clock register" that keeps track of the number of oracle calls made so far.

The following is a technical lemma about a quantum adversary not being able to distinguish between samples from \mathcal{D}^{\perp} and from \mathcal{D}^{\leq} , even when given oracle access to \mathcal{F} , where the function $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{D}^{\perp} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$ is sampled uniformly at random.

Consider the following game between a challenger and a quantum adversary A , specified by $n < 2N$, and a distribution \mathcal{D} over \mathcal{D}^{\perp} ,

- The challenger samples a uniformly random function $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{D}^{\perp} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$ and \mathcal{D}^{\perp} .
- If $\tau = 0$: the challenger samples $G \in \mathcal{D}^{\perp}$, sends G to A .
If $\tau = 1$: the challenger samples uniformly $I \in \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$, sends I to A .
- A additionally gets oracle access to \mathcal{F} . A returns a bit τ^0 to the challenger.

A wins if $\tau = \tau^0$. Let $\text{Dist}^1 A_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}, \mathcal{D}^{\leq}}$ be a random variable for the outcome of the game.

Lemma 3. *For any adversary A making q oracle queries, any family of distributions $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}} : \mathcal{D}^{\perp} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$ where for all \mathcal{D}^{\perp} , \mathcal{D}^{\leq} is a distribution over \mathcal{D}^{\perp} , for any polynomially bounded function $\chi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, there exists a negligible function ϵ such that, for any $n < 2N$, the following holds:*

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}, \mathcal{D}^{\leq}}[\text{Dist}^1 A_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}, \mathcal{D}^{\leq}} = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon + \chi(q) \cdot \epsilon$$

where ϵ is a quantity that is negligible in n if $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^{\perp}(\mathcal{D}^{\perp})$ is negligible in n .

Corollary 1. *For any query-bounded adversary A , any $n < 2N$, any family of distributions $\mathcal{F}_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}} : \mathcal{D}^{\perp} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$ where \mathcal{D}^{\perp} is a distribution over \mathcal{D}^{\perp} with $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^{\perp}(\mathcal{D}^{\perp}) \geq \frac{n}{2}$ for every \mathcal{D}^{\perp} , for any polynomially bounded function $\chi : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, there exists a negligible function ϵ such that, for any $n < 2N$, the following holds:*

$$\Pr_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}, \mathcal{D}^{\leq}}[\text{Dist}^1 A_{\mathcal{D}^{\perp}, \mathcal{D}^{\leq}} = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon + \chi(q) \cdot \epsilon$$

The key step in the proof of Lemma 3 is captured by the one-way-to-hiding lemma [127, 12]. We restate it here following our notation (and provide a proof for completeness). Informally, the lemma gives an upper bound on an adversary's advantage (when given access to a uniformly random function $\mathcal{F} : \mathcal{D}^{\perp} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\leq}$) at distinguishing between a sample drawn from \mathcal{D}^{\perp} and a sample drawn from \mathcal{D}^{\leq} . The upper bound is in terms of the probability that the adversary queries the oracle at the pre-image of the sample at some point during its execution. Equivalently, given two oracles that are identical except on a single input (or more generally on a subset of the

³While additional improved variants of the one-way to hiding lemma were developed [31, 93], any of them suffices for our asymptotic analysis.

inputs), the advantage of an adversary at distinguishing the two oracles is bounded above in terms of the probability that the adversary queries at the differing point (or at a point in the subset where they differ) at some point during its execution.

Lemma 4. *Let $\epsilon < 2^{-N}$. For any $n \geq 2N$, any unitaries U , any family of states $\{|\psi_i\rangle\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_2^N}$, any complete pair of orthogonal projectors P, Q and any distribution μ on \mathbb{Z}_2^N , it holds that:*

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \leq 2\epsilon \quad (3.2)$$

where U is the oracle unitary for $G : \mathbb{Z}_2^N \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_2^N$, and μ is given by

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \quad (3.3)$$

Moreover, μ is negligible if and only if the second term in μ is negligible.

The lemma holds also when the states $|\psi_i\rangle$ are not necessarily pure (but we write them as pure states for ease of notation).

Proof. For any $G \in \mathcal{G}$, define $\mu_G = \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle$ and define $\nu_G = \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \leq 2\epsilon \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon \leq 2\epsilon \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | G^{\otimes n} \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{G \sim \mathcal{G}} \mathbb{E}_{k \sim \mu} \left| \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle - \langle U^{\otimes n} \mathbb{1}_j | \psi_i \rangle \right|^2 \\ & \leq \epsilon \leq 2\epsilon \end{aligned} \quad (3.4)$$

where the first equality uses Lemma 2, and the inequality uses Lemma 18 in [41].

In order to prove the desired inequality, it is sufficient to show that

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G^{G-1} \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \cdot \frac{1}{2}. \quad (3.5)$$

Notice that $\tau_G^{G-1} = \tau_G$, since τ_G projects onto the subspace orthogonal to G before every query to \cdot . This implies that the LHS simplifies as

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G^{G-1} \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_{G_2} \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_{G_2} \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

where to get the third line, we used the fact that τ_G^{G-1} and τ_G are a complete pair of orthogonal projectors, and to get the last line we exploited properties of the Euclidean norm.

Combining (3.4) and (3.6) gives the desired inequality.

With a little extra work, one can show that ϵ is negligible if and only if

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle \tau_G \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \epsilon$$

is negligible. We refer the reader to the proof of Theorem 3 in [12] for the full details. \square

Proof of Lemma 3. Without loss of generality, let A be specified by a unitary U , the oracle unitary S and a measurement given by projectors P_0 and $P_1 = 1 - P_0$, so that the unitary part of A 's algorithm is $U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell}$, where ℓ the number of oracle queries made by A . Then, A 's winning probability is precisely given by,

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \left[\text{Dist}^1 A \right] & = \mathbb{E} \left[\langle P_1 \rangle \right] \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell} \rangle \right] \right] \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell} \rangle \right] \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.7)$$

where we omit writing ancilla qubits initialized in the zero state that $U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell}$ might be acting on.

Then, by Lemma 4, we have

$$\Pr \left[\text{Dist}^1 A \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\epsilon + 2^{\ell} \epsilon \right) \quad (3.8)$$

where ϵ is the quantity given by

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon & = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell} \rangle \right] \right] \right] \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[\mathbb{E}_G \left[\mathbb{E}_{f_{0-1g} < k} \left[\langle U \cdot S^{\otimes \ell} \rangle \right] \right] \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.9)$$

Moreover, by Lemma 4, ϵ is negligible if and only if the second term,

$$E_{G \leftarrow \mathcal{G}} E_{j \leftarrow \mathcal{J}} \sqrt{E_{i \leftarrow \mathcal{I}} \langle \rho_i | G_j | \rho_i \rangle} \leq \epsilon$$

is negligible. Hence, it suffices to bound the above term. Notice that for any fixed i, j and G ,

$$E_{G \leftarrow \mathcal{G}} \sqrt{E_{j \leftarrow \mathcal{J}} \langle \rho_i | G_j | \rho_i \rangle} \leq \sqrt{E_{G \leftarrow \mathcal{G}} E_{j \leftarrow \mathcal{J}} \langle \rho_i | G_j | \rho_i \rangle} \leq \sqrt{2^{-H_{\min}(\rho_i)}} \tag{3.10}$$

where the first inequality follows from Jensen’s inequality (for concave functions), and the second inequality uses the fact that the state $|\rho_i\rangle$ does not depend on G , and hence the quantity under the square root is bounded above by the optimal probability of correctly predicting a sample from \mathcal{G} , which is, by definition, $2^{-H_{\min}(\rho_i)}$. Therefore, ϵ is negligible so long as $2^{-H_{\min}(\rho_i)}$ is negligible. \square

Finally, we define the notion of indistinguishability of ensembles of quantum states *in the QROM*. This is similar to Definition 2.

Definition 15 (Indistinguishability of ensembles of quantum states in the QROM). *Let $\rho : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{N}})$ and $\sigma : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{N}})$ be polynomially bounded functions, and let r_{ρ} and r_{σ} be $|\mathcal{N}|$ -qubit states, for $E_{\rho} \leq 2^{-\epsilon}$ and $E_{\sigma} \leq 2^{-\epsilon}$. We say that $\{r_{\rho}\}_{\rho \in \mathcal{N}}$ and $\{r_{\sigma}\}_{\sigma \in \mathcal{N}}$ are quantum computationally indistinguishable ensembles of quantum states, denoted by $r_{\rho} \approx r_{\sigma}$ if, for any QPT distinguisher D with single-bit output, any polynomially bounded $\epsilon : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, any family of $|\mathcal{N}|$ -qubit auxiliary states $\{a_{\rho}\}_{\rho \in \mathcal{N}}$, and every $\rho \in \mathcal{N}$,*

$$E_{\rho \leftarrow \mathcal{N}} |\Pr_{D, a_{\rho}}[D(r_{\rho}, a_{\rho}) = 1] - \Pr_{D, a_{\sigma}}[D(r_{\sigma}, a_{\sigma}) = 1]| \leq \epsilon$$

3.3 Quantum Copy-Protection

Our definition of a secure copy-protection scheme is essentially identical to the notion in [2]. We elaborate on the differences in Section 3.3.

Definition 16 (Quantum copy-protection scheme). *Let $\mathcal{F} = \{F_{\rho}\}_{\rho \in \mathcal{X}}$ be a class of efficiently computable functions $F : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ with domain \mathcal{X} and range \mathcal{Y} . A quantum copy-protection (QCP) scheme for the class \mathcal{F} is a pair of QPT algorithms $\text{QCP} = (\text{Protect}, \text{Eval})$ defined as follows:*

- $\text{QCP}.\text{Protect}^{1-\epsilon}(\rho)$: takes as input the security parameter $1-\epsilon$ and a classical description ρ of a function $F \in \mathcal{F}$, and outputs a (possibly mixed) quantum state r .

$\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon} : r \in \mathcal{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} : \text{takes as input the security parameter } 1-\epsilon, \text{ a quantum state } r \text{ and an input } G \in \mathcal{X}, \text{ and outputs a bipartite state } r^0 \in \mathcal{H} \times \mathcal{H} \text{ with } \mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}.$

Slightly abusing notation, we occasionally ignore the post-evaluation state r^0 and simply identify the output of the procedure $\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon}$ with a classical outcome denoted by $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{Y}$.

We say that a QCP scheme is n -correct if, for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, any $\epsilon \in \mathbb{F}_2$, and any input $G \in \mathcal{X}$ to \mathcal{E} :

$$\Pr \left[\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon}(r) = \mathcal{E}(G) : r \leftarrow \text{QCP}\cdot\text{Protect}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon}(G) \right] \geq 1 - \frac{1}{n^{\epsilon}}$$

Note that the probability above comes from the procedure $\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}$ of the QCP scheme. If $\frac{1}{n^{\epsilon}} = \text{negl}^{\epsilon}$, we simply call a copy-protection scheme *correct*. By the Gentle Measurement Lemma [134] it is easy to see that a n -correct scheme is reusable in the following sense: after performing $\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}$ to r it is possible to rewind the procedure to obtain a state that is within trace distance $\frac{1}{n}$ of the original state r .

Informally, we say that a QCP scheme $\text{QCP} = \{\text{Protect}\cdot\text{Eval}\}$ is *secure* if no QPT adversary can produce two ‘copies’ of a copy-protected program $r \leftarrow \text{QCP}\cdot\text{Protect}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon}(G)$ that can both be used to evaluate \mathcal{E} . We formalise the security of copy-protection schemes by means of the following security experiment.

Definition 17 (Piracy experiment). *Let $\text{QCP} = \{\text{Protect}\cdot\text{Eval}\}$ be a copy-protection scheme for a class of functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f : \mathbb{F}_2^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2^{\ell'}\}$ with domain \mathcal{X} and range \mathcal{Y} . Let $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}} = \{D_{f, g} : g \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\ell}\}$ be an ensemble of distributions over \mathcal{F} and let $\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{X}} = \{D_{x, y} : y \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\ell}\}$ be an ensemble of challenge distributions over function inputs \mathcal{X} . The security game (which we call the piracy experiment) takes place between a challenger and an adversary consisting of a triplet of QPT algorithms $\{A, B, C\}$:*

1. The challenger samples $f \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}}$ and sends the program $r \leftarrow \text{QCP}\cdot\text{Protect}^{\mathbb{1}}_{1-\epsilon}(f)$ to A .
2. A applies an efficient CPTP map to map r into a bipartite state r^0 on systems $\mathcal{H}_A, \mathcal{H}_B, \mathcal{H}_C$, and sends system \mathcal{H}_B to B and system \mathcal{H}_C to C (who are not allowed to communicate from this step onward).
3. The challenger samples a pair $(G, G^0) \leftarrow \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{X}} \times \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{X}}$, and sends G to B and G^0 to C .
4. B and C output values $H \in \mathcal{Y}$ and $H' \in \mathcal{Y}$, respectively, and send them to the challenger. The challenger outputs 1, if $H = \mathcal{E}(G)$ and $H' = \mathcal{E}(G^0)$ (i.e., the adversary has succeeded) and 0, otherwise (i.e., the adversary has failed).

We let the random variable $\text{PiracyExp}^{\text{QCP}}_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{F}}, \mathcal{D}_{\mathcal{X}}}(1-\epsilon, \{A, B, C\})$ denote the output bit of the challenger.

Definition 18 (Secure quantum copy-protection). Let $\text{QCP} = \langle \text{Protect-Eval} \rangle$ be a QCP scheme for a class of functions $F = \{f : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m\}$. Let $\mathcal{D}_F = \{D_{f,g}\}_{f \in F, g \in \{0,1\}^n}$ be an ensemble of distributions over F and let $\mathcal{D}_X = \{D_{x^1}, \dots, D_{x^m}\}_{x \in \{0,1\}^m}$ be an ensemble of distributions over X . Then, $\text{QCP} = \langle \text{Protect-Eval} \rangle$ is called \mathcal{D}_F - \mathcal{D}_X -secure if, for any triplet of QPT algorithms $\langle A, B, C \rangle$, it holds that

$$\Pr_{D_{f,g} \in \mathcal{D}_F} \left[\text{PiracyExp}_{\mathcal{D}_F, \mathcal{D}_X}^{\text{QCP}} \langle A, B, C \rangle = 1 \right] \leq \text{Pr}_{D_{f,g} \in \mathcal{D}_F}^{\text{triv}} + \text{negl}(1/n)$$

where $\text{Pr}_{\mathcal{D}_F, \mathcal{D}_X}^{\text{triv}}$ is the trivial winning probability that is always possible due to correctness: A forwards the original copy-protected program to one of the parties, say B (who then evaluates it to obtain the correct output), and the other party, say C , has to guess at random.

Finally, we conclude this section a brief discussion regarding prior definitions of security.

Comparison with existing definitions of copy-protection

Our definition is very similar to the original security definition first proposed by Aaronson [2]. The only difference is the following. In [2], a scheme is χ -secure if for any bounded adversary who tries to create χ programs upon receiving χ copy-protected copies the average number of input challenges answered correctly is $\chi \pm \chi^\epsilon$. In contrast, in our definition we say that the scheme is secure if no adversary can succeed with non-negligible advantage beyond the trivial guessing probability. In our work, we exclusively focus on the case of $\chi = 1$.

3.4 Quantum Copy-Protection of Multi-Bit Point Functions

In this section, we make a conceptual connection between unclonable quantum encryption and quantum copy-protection. Our main result is a quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions which we obtain from any unclonable encryption scheme with a so-called “wrong-key detection mechanism.” Canetti et al. [46] previously introduced a similar property for classical encryption in the context of point function obfuscation.

A private-key quantum encryption of classical messages (QECM) scheme is a procedure that takes as input a key and a plaintext in the form of a classical bit string in a quantum register, and produces a ciphertext in the form of a quantum state. We formalise this notion in Definition 19.

Definition 19 (Quantum encryption scheme of classical messages). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. A quantum encryption of classical messages (QECM) scheme with key space \mathcal{K} and plaintext space \mathcal{M} is a triplet $\text{QECM} = \langle \text{KeyGen-Enc-Dec} \rangle$ consisting of QPT algorithms:

- $\text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon} : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \mathcal{K}$: takes as input the security parameter and outputs a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$.
- $\text{Enc}^{1-\epsilon} : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$: takes as input a key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ and a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and outputs $r \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$.

- $\text{Dec}^1: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$: takes as input a key k and a quantum ciphertext $r \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$, and outputs a plaintext in the form of a state $f \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$, where $\mathcal{H} = \text{span}\{|i\rangle : i \in \{0, \dots, 2^M - 1\}\}$.

We use the notation Enc_k for the map $\mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$, and likewise for Dec_k . Note that Enc_k can naturally be extended to quantum inputs $f \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ with $\mathcal{H} = \text{span}\{|i\rangle : i \in \{0, \dots, 2^M - 1\}\}$ via

$$\text{Enc}_k(f) = \sum_{i,j \in \{0, \dots, 2^M - 1\}} \langle j | f | i \rangle \text{Enc}_k(|i\rangle \langle j|).$$

A QECM scheme is called correct if, for all $k \in \text{supp KeyGen}^1$ and $f \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$,

$$\langle j | \text{Dec}_k(\text{Enc}_k(f)) | i \rangle = \langle j | f | i \rangle + \text{negl}^1.$$

Note that we typically assume that the key space is given by $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^k$ and that the plaintext space \mathcal{M} and ciphertext space consist of inputs of at most poly^1 many bits and qubits, respectively.

We use the following notion of indistinguishable encryptions for general symmetric-key quantum encryption schemes introduced by Alagic et al. [10].

Definition 20 (Indistinguishable security). A QECM scheme Enc-Dec^0 has indistinguishable encryptions (or is IND-secure) if, for every QPT adversary $A = \{M_A, D\}$ consisting of an (adversarial) message sampling procedure M_A and a distinguisher D ,

$$\Pr_{k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^1} [D(\text{Enc}_k(r)) = 1] - \Pr_{k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^1} [D(\text{Enc}_k(j_0)) = 1] = \text{negl}^1,$$

where we assume that $r \in \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$ with $r = \text{tr}^{\mathcal{H}} \circ M_A$, and where j_0 is the all-0 string in the plaintext register.

Informally, we say that a quantum encryption scheme is *unclonable* if no QPT adversary can produce two “copies” of a quantum ciphertext which can each be decrypted with access to the private key. Before we make the notion of unclonable ciphertexts more precise, let us first introduce the following definition of a cloning attack due to Broadbent and Lord [41].

Definition 21 (Cloning attack). Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. A cloning attack $A-B-C^0$ against a QECM scheme Enc-Dec^0 consists of the following QPT algorithms (which are parameterised by κ)

- (cloning map) $A: \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H})$
- (1st decoder) $B: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$
- (2nd decoder) $C: \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H}) \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(\mathcal{H})$

where \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{H} are defined by the quantum encryption scheme \mathcal{E} , i.e., \mathcal{K} is the set of keys and \mathcal{H} is the ciphertext system.

We remark that we only consider *efficient* cloning attacks throughout this work. This is in contrast with the definition of Broadbent and Lord [41] who consider CPTP maps more generally.

Definition 22 (Cloning experiment). Let $\mathcal{E} = \langle \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec} \rangle$ be a QECCM scheme and let $\ell \geq 2$ be a parameter. We define the following security game, called the cloning experiment, which takes place between a challenger and a QPT adversary who executes a cloning attack $\mathcal{A} = \langle B, C \rangle$:

1. The challenger samples $k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1-\ell}$ and $x \leftarrow \mathcal{M}$, and sends $r = \text{Enc}_k(x)$ to \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{A} maps r into a bipartite state r on systems $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes \ell}$, and sends r to the challenger together with descriptions of ensembles of efficient quantum algorithms $\{B_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{K}}$ and $\{C_i\}_{i \in \mathcal{K}}$.
3. The challenger runs B_i on system $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes \ell}$ and C_i on system $\mathcal{H}^{\otimes \ell}$ of r , measures the output states in the computational basis to obtain outcomes $\langle i \rangle$ and $\langle j \rangle$, and outputs 1 if $\langle i \rangle = \langle j \rangle$, and 0 otherwise.

We let the random variable $\text{CloneExp} = \langle \mathcal{A} \rangle$ denote the output bit of the challenger.

Building on the cloning experiment in 22, we then define unclonable security as follows.

Definition 23 (Unclonable Security). Let $\ell \geq 2$ be the security parameter. We say that a QECCM scheme $\mathcal{E} = \langle \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec} \rangle$ with message space $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ is ℓ -unclonable secure if, for all cloning attacks $\mathcal{A} = \langle B, C \rangle$, it holds that

$$\Pr[\text{CloneExp} = 1] \leq 2^{-\ell} + \text{negl}(\ell).$$

Quantum encryption with wrong-key detection

Let us first formalize the “wrong-key detection mechanism” for quantum encryption schemes.

Definition 24 (Wrong-Key Detection). Let $\mathcal{E} = \langle \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec} \rangle$ be a SKQES. We say that the scheme satisfies the wrong-key detection (WKD) property if, for every $\ell \geq 1$:

$$\Pr[\langle i \rangle \neq \langle j \rangle] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\ell).$$

Here, $\langle i \rangle = \text{Tr}[\rho_i \sigma_i]$.

Next, we give a simple transformation that achieves WKD in the QROM.

Construction 1 (Generic Transformation for WKD in the QROM). Let $\ell \geq 2$ be the security parameter and $\mathcal{E} = \text{KeyGen-Enc-Dec}^\circ$ be a QECCM scheme. Fix a function $h : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$. The QECCM $\mathcal{E} = \text{KeyGen}^0\text{-Enc}^0\text{-Dec}^0$ scheme is defined by the following QPT algorithms:

- KeyGen^0 : on input 1^ℓ , run KeyGen^1 to output $K \in \{0,1\}^\ell$.
- Enc^0 : on input x , run $\text{Enc} : K \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$ and output $\text{Enc}(x)$.
- Dec^0 : on input r , first check whether $|r| = \ell$. Output r , if false. Otherwise, run $\text{Dec} : K \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$ and output $\text{Dec}(r)$.

Lemma 18. Let \mathcal{E} be any ℓ -unclonable secure QECCM and let $h : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$ be a hash function, for $\ell \geq 2$. Then, Construction 1 yields an ℓ -unclonable secure QECCM scheme with WKD in the QROM.

Proof. Correctness is clearly preserved. Let us first verify the WKD property of the scheme $\mathcal{E} = \text{KeyGen}^0\text{-Enc}^0\text{-Dec}^0$ in the QROM. Let $\mathcal{A} : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$. It is not hard to see that the WKD property depends on the collision probability for the event that $\mathcal{A}(x) = \mathcal{A}(y)$, for some $x, y \in \{0,1\}^\ell$. In fact, we can express the quantum channel $\text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0$ as follows:

$$\text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0 = \Pr_{\text{COLL}} \circ \text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0 + \Pr_{\text{COLL}^c} \circ \text{Id} \circ \text{Enc}^0.$$

Moreover, by the birthday bound, we have

$$\Pr_{\text{COLL}} \leq \Pr_{\mathcal{A}} \left[\exists x, y \in \{0,1\}^\ell : \mathcal{A}(x) = \mathcal{A}(y) \right] \leq \frac{2^{-\ell}}{2} = \frac{2^{-\ell-1}}{2^{-\ell}}.$$

Hence, we can readily verify the WKD property as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0 - \text{Id} \right| \\ &= \max_{r \in \{0,1\}^\ell} \left| \Pr_{\mathcal{A}} \left[\text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0(r) = r \right] - \Pr_{\mathcal{A}} \left[\text{Id}(r) = r \right] \right| \\ &= \max_{r \in \{0,1\}^\ell} \left| \Pr_{\text{COLL}} \circ \text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0(r) - \Pr_{\text{COLL}^c} \circ \text{Id}(r) \right| \\ &= \Pr_{\text{COLL}} \max_{r \in \{0,1\}^\ell} \left| \Pr_{\mathcal{A}} \left[\text{Dec}^0 \circ \text{Enc}^0(r) = r \right] - \Pr_{\mathcal{A}} \left[\text{Id}(r) = r \right] \right| \leq \frac{2^{-\ell-1}}{2^{-\ell}} = \text{negl}^1_{-\ell}. \end{aligned}$$

For security, let $\mathcal{E} = \text{KeyGen-Enc-Dec}^\circ$ and recall that $\text{Enc}^0 : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$ according to Constr. 1. Let $\mathcal{A} : \{0,1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0,1\}^\ell$ be an adversary against the unclonable security game with respect to \mathcal{E} . We give a reduction from the unclonable security of \mathcal{E} . Suppose that \mathcal{A} receives

access to a re-programmed oracle \mathcal{O}' , where $\mathcal{O}' = \mathcal{O}$, and that \mathcal{A} makes at most $q = \text{poly}(\lambda)$ queries in total. Without loss of generality, we assume that \mathcal{A} is specified by $(\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{O}^{\otimes q})$, for some unitary \mathcal{A} . It suffices to argue that the following global states are negligibly close in trace distance:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{O}} \mathbb{E}_{j \in \{1, \dots, q\}} \mathbb{E}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \mathbb{E}_{h \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \mathbb{E}_{j': i \neq h} \mathbb{E}_{j'': i \neq h} \text{Tr} \left[\mathcal{A} \left(\mathcal{O}^{\otimes q} \text{Enc}_{\mathcal{O}}(j \langle i \rangle, h \langle j' \rangle, j'' \langle i \rangle) \right) \right] \\ & \mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{O}} \mathbb{E}_{j \in \{1, \dots, q\}} \mathbb{E}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \mathbb{E}_{j' \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \text{Tr} \left[\mathcal{A} \left(\mathcal{O}^{\otimes q} \text{Enc}_{\mathcal{O}}(j \langle i \rangle, j' \langle i \rangle) \right) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.11)$$

We use the one-way-to-hiding (Lemma 4) to deduce that the above distance is negligible, so long as the following quantity is negligible:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{O}} \mathbb{E}_{j \in \{1, \dots, q\}} \mathbb{E}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \text{Tr} \left[\mathcal{A} \left(\mathcal{O}^{\otimes q} \text{Enc}_{\mathcal{O}}(j \langle i \rangle, j \langle i \rangle) \right) \right]. \quad (3.12)$$

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the latter is non-negligible. Then, we can construct an adversary that wins at the unclonable security game against \mathcal{O} . The reduction is straightforward: the adversary for the unclonable security game runs \mathcal{A} (by simulating the random oracle \mathcal{O}) to extract j, i . The adversary then decrypts the challenge ciphertext using \mathcal{O} , and forwards the appropriate message m to the decoders \mathcal{B} and \mathcal{C} . By the assumption that the adversary succeeds with non-negligible probability, so does the adversary against the unclonable security of \mathcal{O} , yielding a contradiction.

Using Eq. 3.11, Lemma 6 and that \mathcal{O} is ℓ^1 -unclonable secure it follows that, for all QPT cloning attacks $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{C})$ against \mathcal{O} , there exists a negligible function $\epsilon(\lambda)$ such that:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{O}} \mathbb{E}_{j \in \{1, \dots, q\}} \mathbb{E}_{i \in \{1, \dots, \lambda\}} \text{Tr} \left[\mathcal{A} \left(\mathcal{O}^{\otimes q} \text{Enc}_{\mathcal{O}}(j \langle i \rangle, j \langle i \rangle) \right) \right] \leq \epsilon(\lambda).$$

We conclude that \mathcal{O} is ℓ^1 -unclonable secure. □ □

Quantum copy-protection of multi-bit point functions from unclonable encryption schemes with wrong-key detection

We are now ready to state our quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions which we obtain from any unclonable encryption scheme with the aforementioned “wrong-key detection mechanism.” Here, we consider multi-bit point functions $f_{H, \ell}$ of the form

$$f_{H, \ell}(G) = \begin{cases} \ell & \text{if } G = H \\ 0 & \text{if } G \neq H \end{cases}$$

where $H \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$. Our construction is the following:

Construction 2 (Quantum copy-protection scheme for multi-bit point functions).

To construct a QCP scheme for multi-bit point functions with input and output sizes ℓ , respectively, let $\mathcal{E} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a QECM with WKD, with security parameter and message length equal to ℓ . We define the QCP scheme $\text{QCP} = (\text{Protect}, \text{Eval})$ as follows:

- $\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Protect}^{\ell, \ell} : \mathcal{H}, \ell$: Takes as input a security parameter ℓ and a multi-bit point function $\mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell}$, succinctly specified by the marked input H (of size ℓ) and message c (of size ℓ), and outputs the quantum ciphertext given by $\text{Enc}_H^{\ell, \ell}(c)$.
- $\text{QCP}\cdot\text{Eval}^{\ell, \ell} : r; G$: Takes as input a security parameter ℓ , an alleged copy-protected program r , and a string $G \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ (the input on which the program is to be evaluated). Appends an ancillary qubit in the $|0\rangle$ state. Then, coherently performs a two-outcome measurement to check whether $\text{Dec}_G^{\ell, \ell}(r)$ is in the state $|j\rangle$ or $|h\rangle$, or not, and stores the resulting bit in the ancilla. If true, output 0. Otherwise, rewind the procedure and measure in the standard basis to obtain a message c .

Before stating our main theorem on the security of Construction 2, we define the following two classes of distributions with respect to multi-bit point functions $\mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell}$ of the form

$$\mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell}^{\ell, \ell} = \begin{cases} \mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell} & \text{if } G = H \\ \mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell}^{\perp} & \text{if } G \neq H \end{cases}$$

First, we let $\mathcal{D} = \{ \mathcal{D}_G \}$ be an ensemble of distributions \mathcal{D}_G over multi-bit point functions $\mathcal{H}_{\ell, \ell}$ over $\{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ that sample a marked input H as well an output message c uniformly at random with respect to $\{0, 1\}^{\ell}$. Further, by $\mathcal{D}^0 = \{ \mathcal{D}_H \}$ we denote an arbitrary ensemble of challenge distributions, where each \mathcal{D}_H is a distribution of challenge input pairs to the program.

We prove the following theorem on the security of Construction 2:

Theorem 3. Let $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be any ℓ -unclonable secure QECM with WKD such that $\ell = \ell \log \ell$. Then, Construction 2 yields a secure quantum copy-protection scheme QCP for multi-bit point functions with respect to the pair of ensembles $\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^0$, against computationally-bounded adversaries.

Proof. The correctness of the QCP scheme $\text{QCP} = \{\text{Protect}, \text{Eval}\}$ follows directly from the WKD property of the QECM. Let $\text{Adv} = \{A, B, C\}$ denote the adversary for $\text{PiracyExp}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\text{QCP}}$. We consider two cases, namely when $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\text{triv}} = 1$ and when $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\text{triv}} \neq 1$ (depending on the challenge distribution $\mathcal{D}^0 = \{ \mathcal{D}_H \}$). In the former case, the scheme is trivially secure by definition and we are done. Hence, we will assume that $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{H}}^{\text{triv}} \neq 1$ for the remainder of the proof. Note that, in this case, the distribution \mathcal{D}_H has non-zero weight on the marked input H .

⁴If Dec is not unitary, performing this measurement coherently requires purifying it.

Let $(G_1, G_2) \stackrel{H}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{G}$ denote the inputs received by the freeloaders B and C during the challenge phase. We can express the probability that Adv succeeds at $\text{PiracyExp}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{\text{QCP}}$ as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \\ &= \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 = H < G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 = H = G_2. \end{aligned} \quad (3.13)$$

Without loss of generality, we assume that $\Pr \gg G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2$. Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H < G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 = H = G_2. \end{aligned} \quad (3.14)$$

Let us now state the following simple inequality. By first applying the union bound and then using that B and C are non-signalling, we find that:

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \\ &= \Pr \gg \text{B succeeds} \wedge \text{C succeeds} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{B succeeds} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{C succeeds} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad 1 \\ &= \Pr \gg \text{B succeeds} \mid G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{C succeeds} \mid G_1 < H = G_2 \quad 1 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H = G_2 \quad 1. \end{aligned} \quad (3.15)$$

Plugging this into Eq. (3.14), we obtain the following upper bound:

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H < G_2 \\ & \quad 1 \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 = H = G_2 \\ & \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2 \quad 2 \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \\ &= \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{\text{triv}} \quad 2 \Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2. \end{aligned} \quad (3.16)$$

In the last line, we used the assumption that $\Pr \gg G_1 = H < G_2 \quad \Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2$ together with the following simple identity for the trivial guessing probability:

$$\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{\text{triv}} = \Pr \gg G_1 < H < G_2 \quad \max \left(\Pr \gg G_1 < H = G_2, \Pr \gg G_1 = H < G_2 \right).$$

We complete the proof by showing that $\Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2 \quad \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$. This implies that

$$\Pr \gg \text{Adv wins} \quad \mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{\text{triv}} \quad \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}. \quad (3.17)$$

Suppose that $\text{Adv} = \langle A, B, C \rangle$ succeeds with probability $\epsilon = \Pr[\text{Adv wins} \mid G_1 = H = G_2]$ on the challenge pair consisting of $G_1 = H$ and $G_2 = H$. We will use Adv to construct an adversary against the unclonable security of the QECCM scheme \mathcal{E} . Consider the QPT adversary $\text{Adv}^0 = \langle A^0, B^0, C^0 \rangle$ against \mathcal{E} , which we define as follows:

- A^0 receives the state $r = \text{Enc}_H^1(j \mid i \mid h \mid j^0)$ and runs the pirate A on r . Next, A^0 passes the two registers output by A to the decoders B^0 and C^0 .
- The decoders B^0 and C^0 each receive the marked input H and then run the freeloaders B and C , respectively, on the two registers prepared by A^0 . Finally, the decoders output the outcomes obtained from running the freeloaders.

Since \mathcal{E} is ℓ -unclonable secure, there exists a negligible $\epsilon(\ell)$ such that:

$$\mathbb{E}_H \mathbb{E}_j \text{Tr}[\rho_{j \mid i \mid h \mid j^0} \rho_{j \mid i \mid h \mid j^0}^{B^0} \rho_{j \mid i \mid h \mid j^0}^{C^0}] \leq \epsilon(\ell).$$

Since $\ell = \lceil \log_2 \epsilon^{-1} \rceil$, we conclude that Adv^0 succeeds with probability $\epsilon \geq \epsilon(\ell)$. This completes the proof of Eq. (3.17), and thus the proof of Thm. 3. \square

Finally, when applying the WKD transformation from Construction 1 to the $\log_2 \epsilon^{-1}$ -unclonable encryption scheme by Broadbent and Lord [41], we obtain the following theorem:

Theorem 4. *There exists a $\log_2 \epsilon^{-1}$ -unclonable secure QECCM scheme with WKD for which Construction 2 yields a secure QCP scheme for multi-bit point functions with respect to the pair of ensembles $\langle D, D^0 \rangle$, against query-bounded (computationally bounded) adversaries in the QROM.*

3.5 Secure Software Leasing

In this section, consider a weaker notion of quantum copy-protection called “secure software leasing” (SSL) which was introduced in [17]. The crucial difference between the two notions lies in the fact that the scheme comes with a prescribed verification routine.

The syntax of a secure software leasing scheme is as follows.

Definition 25 (Secure software leasing). *Let $\mathcal{F} = \{F : X \rightarrow Y\}$ be a class of efficiently computable functions $F : X \rightarrow Y$ with domain X and range Y . A secure software leasing (SSL) scheme for \mathcal{F} consists of QPT algorithms $\text{SSL} = \langle \text{Gen}, \text{Lease}, \text{Eval}, \text{Verify} \rangle$ defined as follows:*

- $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Gen}^{\ell}$ takes as input the security parameter ℓ and outputs a secret key sk .
- $\text{SSL} \cdot \text{Lease}^{sk, F}$ takes as input a secret key sk and a function $F \in \mathcal{F}$, and outputs a quantum state r_F .

- $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Eval}^1 G - r_\xi^0$ takes a string G as input to ξ together with a state r_ξ , and outputs H^0 and a post-evaluation state \tilde{r}_ξ .
- $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}^1 \text{sk} - \xi - f^0$ takes as input the secret key sk , the function $\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-$ and a state f , and outputs 1, if f is a valid lease state for ξ , and 0 otherwise.

There exists a negligible function ϵ such that the scheme satisfies:

- *Correctness of evaluation:* for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-$, and for all G in the domain of ξ ,

$$\Pr \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Eval}^1 G - r^0 = \xi^1 G^0 : r \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Lease}^1 \text{sk} - \xi^0 - \text{sk} \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Gen}^1 1 - \epsilon = 1 - \epsilon^0.$$

- *Correctness of verification:* for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for all $\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-$,

$$\Pr \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}^1 \text{sk} - \xi - r^0 = 1 : r \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Lease}^1 \text{sk} - \xi^0 - \text{sk} \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Gen}^1 1 - \epsilon = 1 - \epsilon^0.$$

Security is defined in terms of a security game between a lessor and an adversary A (the lessee). Informally, any secure software leasing (SSL) scheme should satisfy the following key property. After receiving a leased copy of ξ denoted by r_ξ (generated using $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Lease}$), the adversary should not be able to produce a quantum state f on registers R_1 and R_2 such that:

- $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}$ deems the contents of register R_1 of $f_{R_1 R_2}$ to be valid, once it is returned.
- The adversary can still compute ξ (on inputs chosen by the lessor) from the post-measurement state in register R_2 given by $f_{R_2} / \text{Tr}_{R_1} = 1 - \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}^1 \text{sk} - \xi^0 - 1_{R_2} f_{R_1 R_2}$.

As in the case of quantum copy-protection schemes, we consider a *program ensemble* distribution $\mathcal{D} = \{f_{F_-}^g\}_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_N}$ and an *input challenge ensemble* of distributions $\{f_{D_X}^1 \xi^0\}_{\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-}$. To formalize the security of SSL schemes, we consider the following experiment.

Definition 26 (Piracy experiment for secure software leasing). Let $\text{SSL} = \{ \text{Gen} - \text{Lease} - \text{Eval} - \text{Verify} \}^0$ be a secure software leasing scheme for a class of functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f_{F_-}^g\}_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_N}$ with domain X and range Y . Let $\mathcal{D}_F = \{f_{D_F}^g\}_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_N}$ be an ensemble of distributions over \mathcal{F}_- and let $\mathcal{D}_X = \{f_{D_X}^1 \xi^0\}_{\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-}$ be an ensemble of challenge distributions over function inputs X . The security game (which we call piracy experiment) takes place as follows between a lessor and a QPT adversary A :

1. The lessor samples a function $\xi \in \mathcal{F}_-$ and runs $\text{sk} \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Gen}^1 1 - \epsilon$. Then, the lessor runs $r \leftarrow \text{SSL}\cdot\text{Lease}^1 \text{sk} - \xi^0$. The lessor sends r to A .

2. A outputs a (possibly entangled) state f on two registers R_1 and R_2 , and then sends the first register R_1 to the lessor.
3. For verification, the lessor runs $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}$ on input the secret key sk , a function $f \in \mathcal{F}_N$ and the register R_1 of the state $f_{R_1 R_2}$. If $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}$ accepts, the lessor outputs $ok = 1$ and lets the game continue, otherwise, the lessor outputs $ok = 0$ and A loses.
4. The lessor samples $G \leftarrow D_X$, and sends G to the adversary A .
5. A responds with a bit 1 . If $1 = f^{-1}(G)$, the lessor outputs 1 . Otherwise, the lessor outputs 0 .

We let the random variable $\text{PiracyExp}_{D_F, D_X}^{\text{SSL}}(1 - A)$ denote the output bit of the challenger.

We now give a formal definition of security.

Definition 27 (Security). Let $\text{SSL} = (\text{Gen}, \text{Lease}, \text{Eval}, \text{Verify})$ be an SSL scheme for a class of functions $\mathcal{F} = \{f : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\}$. Let $D_F = \{f_{D_F, g} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\}$ be an ensemble of distributions over \mathcal{F} and let $D_X = \{f_{D_X, g} : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}\}$ be an ensemble of distributions over \mathcal{X} . Then, SSL is called (D_F, D_X) -secure if, for any QPT algorithm A , it holds that

$$\Pr[\text{PiracyExp}_{D_F, D_X}^{\text{SSL}}(1 - A) = 1] - \gamma_{D_F, D_X}^{\text{triv-SSL}} \leq \text{negl}(\epsilon).$$

Here, $\gamma_{D_F, D_X}^{\text{triv-SSL}}$ is the trivial winning probability which corresponds to the guessing probability of the challenge distribution D_X . In other words,

$$\gamma_{D_F, D_X}^{\text{triv-SSL}} = \max_{G \in \mathcal{X}} \Pr_{f \leftarrow D_F}[f^{-1}(G) = G].$$

where $\Pr_{f \leftarrow D_F}[f^{-1}(G) = G]$ is the probability that the correct answer to a challenge sampled from D_F is G .

3.6 Secure Software Leasing for Compute-and-Compare Programs

In this section, we show how to obtain an SSL scheme for a general class of compute-and-compare programs [131, 76]. A compute-and-compare program $\text{CC} \gg f, H$ is specified by an efficiently computable function $f : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^m$ and a string $H \in \{0, 1\}^m$ in its range, where

$$\text{CC} \gg f, H = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f^{-1}(H) \neq \emptyset \\ 0 & \text{if } f^{-1}(H) = \emptyset \end{cases}$$

Note that point functions are a special case of compute-and-compare programs where the function f is the identity map.

In this section, we show how to lease $\text{CC} \gg f, H$ in the following simple way: the encoded program consists of (a description of) a function f in the clear, together with a quantumly encoded version of the point function with marked input H . In fact, it is straightforward to show that the SSL security of the extended construction reduces to the SSL security of the original point function scheme.

Secure software leasing for single-bit point functions

First, we show how to obtain an SSL scheme for single-bit point functions $f_{H,G} : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ of the form

$$f_{H,G}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } G(x) = H(x) \\ 0 & \text{if } G(x) < H(x) \end{cases}$$

Specifically, we will focus our attention on *unpredictable point function distributions* consisting of a distribution \mathcal{D} over point functions on $\{0,1\}^n$ such that \mathcal{D} satisfies $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^1(\mathcal{D}) \geq \epsilon^n$ for some $\epsilon > 0$. We will now state our SSL scheme for single-bit point functions. In the following, we omit the procedure SSL-Gen as we do not require it in our construction.

Construction 3 (SSL scheme for point functions). *Let ϵ be the security parameter, and let $H : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ and $G : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ be hash functions, where $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^1(H, G) \geq \epsilon^n$. Consider the following secure software leasing (SSL) scheme $(\text{SSL-Lease}, \text{SSL-Eval}, \text{SSL-Verify})$ for point functions $f_{H,G}$ with marked input $H(x)$:*

- $\text{SSL-Lease}(\epsilon, f_{H,G})$: *Takes as input a security parameter ϵ and a point function $f_{H,G}$, succinctly specified by the marked input H (of size n)*
 - Set $\ell = \lceil \log(1/\epsilon) \rceil$.
 - Sample $E \in \{0,1\}^{\ell n}$ uniformly at random and let $I = \text{bin}(E)$.
 - Output $\{j_i E^i\}_{i=1}^{\ell}$.
- $\text{SSL-Eval}(\{j_i E^i\}_{i=1}^{\ell}; G)$: *Takes as input a security parameter ϵ , a program $\{j_i E^i\}_{i=1}^{\ell}$, and a string $G \in \{0,1\}^n$ (the input on which the program is to be evaluated).*
 - Set $\ell^0 = \lceil \log(1/\epsilon) \rceil$.
 - Apply Hadamards $H^0 = H^1 \dots H^{\ell^0}$ to r . Append $\ell^0 - 1$ ancillary qubits, all in state $|0\rangle$, and compute the hash function H^0 with input r into the first ℓ^0 of them (possibly making use of additional ancillary qubits). Then, coherently measure whether the first $\ell^0 - 1$ ancilla qubits are in state $|1\rangle$, recording the result in the last ancilla qubit, uncompute the hash function H^0 and undo the Hadamards H^0 . Finally, measure the last ancilla qubit to obtain a bit 1 as output.
- $\text{SSL-Verify}(\{j_i E^i\}_{i=1}^{\ell}, I, f_{H,G})$: *Apply H^1 to the input state \mathcal{F} , where $\ell = \lceil \log(1/\epsilon) \rceil$, and measure in the standard basis. Output 1 if the result is E such that $\text{bin}(E) = I$, and 0 otherwise.*

The correctness property of Construction 3 according to Definition 25 is immediate to verify. Before stating our main theorem on the security of Construction 3, we introduce a few classes of distributions over point functions and input challenges.

- $D_{\text{PF-UNP}}$. The class of *unpredictable point function distributions* $D_{\text{PF-UNP}}$ consists of ensembles $\mathcal{D} = \{f_H\}_H$ where H is a distribution over point functions on $\{0,1\}^n$ such that \mathcal{D} satisfies $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^1(\mathcal{D}) \geq \epsilon^n$ for some $\epsilon > 0$.

We also define the following class of distributions over input challenges.

- $D_{\text{PF-Chall-SSL}}$. An ensemble $\mathcal{D} = \{f_H\}_H$, where each f_H is a distribution over $\{0,1\}^{j(H)}$, belongs to the class $D_{\text{PF-Chall-SSL}}$ if there exists an efficiently sampleable family $\mathcal{F} = \{f_H\}_H$ of distributions over $\{0,1\}^n$ with $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^1(\mathcal{F}) \geq \epsilon^n$, for some $\epsilon > 0$, such that f_H is the following distribution (where $n = j(H)$):

- with probability $1/2$, output H .
- with probability $1/2$, sample $G \leftarrow \mathcal{F}_H$, and output G .

We say the ensemble \mathcal{D} is *specified* by the ensemble \mathcal{F} .

We finally define two classes of distributions over pairs of programs and challenges.

- $D_{\text{PF-pairs-stat-SSL}}$. This consists of pairs of ensembles $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^0) = (\{f_H\}_H, \{f_H^0\}_H)$ where $\mathcal{D} \in D_{\text{PF-UNP}}$ and $\mathcal{D}^0 \in D_{\text{PF-Chall-SSL}}$ satisfying the following. Let \mathcal{D}^0 be parametrized by the family $\mathcal{F} = \{f_H\}_H$ (following the notation introduced above), and denote by $\text{MarkedInput}^1(\mathcal{D}^0)$ the distribution over marked points in $\{0,1\}^n$ induced by \mathcal{D}^0 . Then, the families \mathcal{F} and $\text{MarkedInput}^1(\mathcal{D}^0)$ are statistically indistinguishable.
- $D_{\text{PF-pairs-comp-SSL}}$. This is defined in the same way as $D_{\text{PF-pairs-stat-SSL}}$, except that we only require \mathcal{F} and $\text{MarkedInput}^1(\mathcal{D}^0)$ to be *computationally* indistinguishable.

The following is our main result on the security of Construction 3.

Theorem 5. *The scheme of Construction 3, with $\epsilon = \text{poly}(\epsilon)$, is a secure software leasing scheme for point functions with respect to any pair of ensembles $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^0) \in D_{\text{PF-pairs-stat-SSL}} \times D_{\text{PF-pairs-comp-SSL}}$, against query-bounded (computationally bounded) adversaries in the quantum random oracle model.*

Theorem 5 implies that, once a leased copy is successfully returned to the lessor, no adversary can distinguish the marked input of a point function from a random (non-marked) input with probability better than $1/2$, except for a negligible advantage (in the parameter ϵ).

We give a proof of Theorem 5 in the next section.

Proof of security

To prove the theorem, we rely on a few technical results.

Lemma 5. *Let $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and $\rho \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. Then, it holds that*

$$\left| \text{Tr} \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^n U_{\ell \ell} \rho \right) - \sum_{\ell=1}^n \text{Tr} \left(U_{\ell \ell} \rho \right) \right| \leq \|U\|_1 \|\rho\|_1.$$

Proof. Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have

$$\left| \text{Tr} \left(\sum_{\ell=1}^n U_{\ell \ell} \rho \right) - \sum_{\ell=1}^n \text{Tr} \left(U_{\ell \ell} \rho \right) \right| \leq \sqrt{\sum_{\ell=1}^n |U_{\ell \ell}|^2} \sqrt{\sum_{\ell=1}^n |\text{Tr} \rho_{\ell \ell}|^2}.$$

The claim follows from the norm inequality $\|G\|_2 \leq \|G\|_1$, for all $G \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$. □

Lemma 6. *Let $0 \leq \rho \leq 1$ and let r and f be states such that $\text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \leq W$. Then,*

$$\text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \leq W \implies \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \leq W.$$

Proof. By the standard identity $\text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) = \max_{0 \leq \lambda \leq 1} \text{Tr}(\rho(r - \lambda f - (1-\lambda)\rho))$, it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) &= \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \leq \text{Tr}(\rho(r - \lambda f - (1-\lambda)\rho)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) - \lambda \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) + (1-\lambda) \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) - \lambda \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) + (1-\lambda) \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \\ &= \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) - \lambda \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) + (1-\lambda) \text{Tr}(\rho(r-f)) \end{aligned}$$

The other inequality can be shown by reversing the role of r and f . □

Lemma 7 ([127], Lemma 18). *Let $\rho \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ and define $\rho^{\text{eq}} = \int_{E \in \mathcal{F}_0} |j_E\rangle\langle j_E|$ (i.e., the projector that checks if two registers yield the same outcome if measured in the $|j_E\rangle$ basis). Then, the following is true for every $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$. For any approximate EPR state,*

$$|j_{q_{\ell}}\rangle = \frac{1}{2^{\ell}} \sum_{E \in \mathcal{F}_0} |j_E\rangle \otimes |j_E\rangle$$

where $0 \leq \ell \leq \mathcal{F}_0$ have Hamming weight at most ℓ , it follows that:

- $\langle j_{q_{\ell}} | \rho^{\text{eq}} | j_{q_{\ell}} \rangle = \langle j_{q_{\ell}} | \rho | j_{q_{\ell}} \rangle$ holds if and only if for all $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$:
$$\langle j_{\ell} | \rho | j_{\ell} \rangle = 0 \iff \langle j_{\ell} | \rho | j_{\ell} \rangle = 1 \iff \langle j_{\ell} | \rho | j_{\ell} \rangle = 0.$$
- $\langle j_{q_{\ell}} | \rho^{\text{eq}} | j_{q_{\ell}} \rangle = 0$ holds for all other cases.

We also rely on the next lemma which is based on a result by Unruh [127, Lemma 15]. To state the lemma, we define the projector onto the subspace spanned by EPR-pairs in registers XY with up to $\ell \leq N$ single-qubit Pauli operators applied to register Y:

$$P_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} = \sum_{\substack{0,1 \in \{0,1\}^{\ell} \\ F^1 0^{\ell} - F^1 1^{\ell}}} \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}} |j\rangle_{XY} \langle j|$$

where $F^1 0^{\ell} - F^1 1^{\ell}$ denote the Hamming weights of the strings 0 and 1 . Since $|j\rangle_{XY} : 0,1 \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ forms an orthogonal basis of XY, any state r such that $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} (1_R r_{XYR}) = r_{XYR}$ on registers X-Y and R can be written as follows (where $0,1$ of weight greater than ℓ have probability zero):

$$r_{XYR} = \sum_{\substack{0,1 \in \{0,1\}^{\ell} \\ F^1 0^{\ell} - F^1 1^{\ell}}} \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}} |j\rangle_{XY} \langle j| \rho_R^{0,1} \tag{3.18}$$

for some arbitrary states $\rho_R^{0,1}$ and indices $0,1 \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$. We show the following lemma:

Lemma 8 (Monogamy uncertainty relation). *Fix a parameter $\ell \leq N$ and string $\lambda \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Let r be a density matrix on registers X-Y and R with*

$$\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} (1_R r_{XYR}) = r_{XYR}.$$

Let $\{E^0, E^1\}_{\lambda} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ be a POVM acting on register R and suppose that a measurement according to the set $\{|j\rangle_{XY} \langle j| \otimes 1_Y \otimes E^{\lambda} \}_{\lambda} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ is performed on systems XYR. Then,

$$\Pr_{\lambda} [E^{\lambda}] = \sum_{\lambda \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}} \text{Tr} (|j\rangle_{XY} \langle j| \otimes 1_Y \otimes E^{\lambda} r_{XYR}) \leq 2^{-\ell}.$$

Hence, the min-entropy of the random variable λ (with outcome E) given register R is at least

$$H_{\min}(\lambda | R) \geq \ell \log_2 2^{-\ell} = \ell.$$

Proof. For brevity, we define a family of projectors $\{P_D\}_D$ acting on registers X and Y, where

$$P_D = \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}} |j\rangle_{XY} \langle j| \otimes 1_Y.$$

Let \mathcal{D} be the set of all possible indices of weight less or equal than ℓ . Now, using decomposition (3.18), we can bound the success probability of measuring $E^{\lambda} = E$ using the information in the

- Having access to the random oracles \mathcal{H} and \mathcal{G} , the adversary A outputs a (possibly entangled) state ρ on two registers Y and R , and sends the register Y to the lessor.
- For verification, the lessor runs $\text{SSL}\text{-Verify}^{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{G}}(\rho)$: Measure the register Y in the $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ basis according to $\mathcal{H}(\rho)$. If the outcome is equal to E such that $\mathcal{H}(E) = I$, the lessor outputs $\text{ok} = 1$ and lets the game continue, otherwise, the lessor outputs $\text{ok} = 0$ and A loses.
- Conditioning on $\text{ok} = 1$, the lessor sends the adversary a sample $G \leftarrow D_H$ to which A responds with a bit (we refer to this phase of the security game as the “input challenge phase”). Using the string H given as input, the lessor outputs 1, if the bit is equal to $\mathcal{G}(H)$, and 0 otherwise.

1: The game is the same as before, except that in the input challenge phase the lessor samples $G \leftarrow D_H$, and sends $\mathcal{G}(G)$ to A , (instead of sending G directly).

2: The game is the same as before, except for the input challenge phase. The lessor samples $G \leftarrow D_H$. Then, if $G < H$, the lessor chooses $\lambda \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ and sends λ to A (instead of $\mathcal{G}(G)$).

3: The game is the same as before, except that the lessor samples $\lambda \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ (instead of $\mathcal{G}(G)$). Then, in the input challenge phase, the lessor samples $G \leftarrow D_H$. If $G = H$, the lessor sends λ to A .

4: The game is identical to the game before, except that we replace $\mathcal{G}(G)$ with a uniformly random string $\lambda \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$.

First, we show that the advantage of any adversary in 4 is negligible. In the rest of the section, we denote by ϵ° the optimal winning probability in hybrid 4.

Lemma 9. $\epsilon^{\circ} \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

Proof. First, the optimal probability of the adversary winning the game can only increase if we remove the verification portion of the game, and the lessor directly executes the input challenge phase.

Then, we consider the state received by the adversary in the two distinct cases of the input challenge phase.

- The lessor samples the marked point. In this case, the state received by the adversary is the following, which is completely independent of the oracle \mathcal{O} :

$$E_{\mathcal{O} \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [E^{\mathcal{O}}(i, h^{\mathcal{O}}(j)) \mid j \in \mathcal{I} \wedge h \setminus j] = E_{\mathcal{O} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}} [i, h \setminus j].$$

Notice that the latter state is maximally mixed.

- The lessor samples a point other than the marked point. In this case, the adversary receives the following state, which is again independent of the oracle:

$$E_{\mathcal{O} \leftarrow \mathcal{E} \setminus \mathcal{E}} [E^{\mathcal{O}}(i, h^{\mathcal{O}}(j)) \mid j \notin \mathcal{I} \wedge h \setminus j] = E_{\mathcal{O} \leftarrow \mathcal{H}} [i, h \setminus j].$$

The latter state is again maximally mixed.

Thus, an adversary can win the game Game_4 with probability at most $\frac{1}{2}$. \square

We will now show that the optimal success probabilities in successive hybrids do not deviate by more than a negligible amount.

Lemma 10. $|j \text{?}^1 \text{?}_1^0 - \text{?}^1 \text{?}_0^0| = \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$.

Proof. The proof follows immediately from the fact that \mathcal{O} is a random oracle, and hence the pre-image G does not help the adversary and can be simulated. \square

Lemma 11. $|j \text{?}^1 \text{?}_2^0 - \text{?}^1 \text{?}_1^0| = \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$.

Proof. This follows immediately from the following observation: Any adversary that wins with non-negligible difference in ?_2 and ?_1 immediately yields a distinguisher for $\text{?}_1^1 - \text{?}_1^0$ and $\text{?}_{<1}^*$. This violates Corollary 1. \square

Lemma 12. $|j \text{?}^1 \text{?}_3^0 - \text{?}^1 \text{?}_2^0| = \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$.

Proof. The proof is analogous as in the previous lemma, where an adversary that wins with probabilities that differ non-negligibly in ?_3 and ?_2 yields a distinguisher for $\text{?}_1^1 - \text{?}_1^0$ and $\text{?}_{<1}^*$. \square

The crux of the security proof is showing that $\text{?}^1 \text{?}_3^0$ and $\text{?}^1 \text{?}_4^0$ are negligibly close.

Lemma 13. $|j \text{?}^1 \text{?}_4^0 - \text{?}^1 \text{?}_3^0| = \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$.

The rest of the section is devoted to proving this lemma. At a high level, the proof has two parts:

- For any adversary making q queries to the oracle, we bound the difference between the winning probability in \mathcal{G}_3 and in \mathcal{G}_4 by $\text{poly}^1(q) \epsilon$, where ϵ is a quantity related to the probability that the adversary queries the oracle at the encoded string E .
- Then, we show that the quantity ϵ is negligible.

Lemma 14. *Let A be an adversary for \mathcal{G}_3 and \mathcal{G}_4 , making $\text{poly}^1(q)$ oracle queries (pre and post verification). Suppose that A passes the verification step with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}^1(q)$ in \mathcal{G}_3 . Let A be specified by the unitary U (i.e. A alternates oracle calls with applications of U). Let $\rho_{E, \lambda} \succeq 0$, and let $r_{R, \lambda}^{E, \lambda}$ be density matrices, for all E, λ . Let*

$$\rho_{LR} = \mathbb{E}_{E, \lambda} \rho_{E, \lambda} \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} |i\rangle\langle j| \text{Tr}[\rho_{E, \lambda} |i\rangle\langle j|] \otimes r_{R, \lambda}^{E, \lambda}$$

be the post-verification state of the lessor and A in \mathcal{G}_4 conditioned on A passing the verification step. Let $g_{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} |i\rangle\langle j| \otimes \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\lambda} |i\rangle\langle j|$. Then,

$$\left| \Pr_{\lambda} [A \text{ wins in } \mathcal{G}_3] - \Pr_{\lambda} [A \text{ wins in } \mathcal{G}_4] \right| \leq \text{poly}^1(q) \epsilon, \text{ negl}^1(q)$$

where

$$\epsilon = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E, \lambda} \left[\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\text{Tr}[\rho_{E, \lambda} |i\rangle\langle j|] \right] \right] \left\| \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} |i\rangle\langle j| \otimes \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\lambda} |i\rangle\langle j| \right\|_1$$

Proof. As we have done in several earlier proofs, we can recast \mathcal{G}_3 as follows: A receives a uniformly random λ , and gets access to a the reprogrammed oracle $\mathcal{O}_{E, \lambda}$. Let $|E\rangle_{\lambda}$ denote the encoding of string E using basis λ . Let q_1 and q_2 denote the number of queries made by the adversary, respectively, before and after the verification phase.

First notice that the global states of the lessor and adversary right before the verification is executed are negligibly close in trace distance in \mathcal{G}_3 and \mathcal{G}_4 .

$$\mathbb{E}_{E, \lambda} \left[\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\rho_{E, \lambda} \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} |i\rangle\langle j| \text{Tr}[\rho_{E, \lambda} |i\rangle\langle j|] \right] \right] \left\| \mathbb{E}_{E, \lambda} \left[\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\rho_{E, \lambda} \otimes \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i, j} |i\rangle\langle j| \text{Tr}[\rho_{E, \lambda} |i\rangle\langle j|] \right] \right] \right\|_1 \leq \text{negl}^1(q) \cdot (3.19)$$

Here we have stored the complete function f in an additional register, the quantum way of formulating indistinguishability of the joint distribution of f and the adversary's state.

Equation (3.19) follows from the one-way-to-hiding lemma (Lemma 4), and the fact that A only queries at E with negligible probability (otherwise A would straightforwardly imply an adversary that wins the monogamy game (more precisely the variant of Lemma 1)).

It follows that:

- The probabilities of A passing the verification step in \mathcal{C}_3 and in \mathcal{C}_4 are negligibly close.
- The post-verification states, conditioned on passing verification must be negligibly close (this uses (3.19) together with the fact that, by hypothesis, A passes verification with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}^1_{-0}$).

By definition, the joint state of lessor and adversary post-verification state in \mathcal{C}_4 conditioned on A passing verification is

$$\mathcal{F}_{LR} = E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \otimes |Ei\rangle \langle hEj| \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \}_{L} \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}}.$$

Let the analogous state in \mathcal{C}_3 be

$$\tilde{\mathcal{F}}_{LR} = E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \otimes |Ei\rangle \langle hEj| \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \}_{L} \tilde{\mathcal{F}}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}}.$$

Then $\mathcal{F}_{L-R} \approx \tilde{\mathcal{F}}_{L-R}$. Now, denote by $f^{0-1}g$ the projective measurement performed by A to guess the answer to the input challenge phase. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{\mathcal{C}_4} \{ A \text{ wins in } \mathcal{C}_4 \mid \text{verification is passed} \} \\ &= E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \{ |1\rangle \langle 1| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \} \} \\ & \approx \frac{1}{2} E_{\mathcal{V}^0} \text{Tr} \{ |0\rangle \langle 0| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.20)$$

And, similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr_{\mathcal{C}_3} \{ A \text{ wins in } \mathcal{C}_3 \mid \text{verification is passed} \} \\ &= E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \{ |1\rangle \langle 1| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \} \} \\ & \approx \frac{1}{2} E_{\mathcal{V}^0} \text{Tr} \{ |0\rangle \langle 0| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \} \\ & \approx E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ E_{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \{ \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \{ |1\rangle \langle 1| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \} \} \\ & \approx \frac{1}{2} E_{\mathcal{V}^0} \text{Tr} \{ |0\rangle \langle 0| \otimes \mathbb{1} \otimes \mathcal{F}_R^{E^{-1} \cdot I^{-1}} \otimes |j\rangle \langle i| \otimes |h\rangle \langle j| \} \otimes \mathbb{1} \}. \end{aligned} \quad (3.21)$$

Using equations (3.20) and (3.21), and applying the O2H lemma twice (once to bound the distance between the first terms in expressions (3.20) and (3.21), and once to bound the distance between the second terms in (3.20) and (3.21)), we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_4 \mid \text{verification is passed}] - \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_3 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& \leq \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \\
& = \text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1
\end{aligned} \tag{3.22}$$

where to get two equalities we used the definition of \mathcal{G}_1 and $\text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$. This is the desired bound. \square

In the rest of the section, we show that the quantity $\text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$ from Lemma 14 is negligible. First of all, notice that $\text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$ is negligible if and only if the second term in $\text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$ is negligible, i.e., if and only if,

$$\mathbb{E}_{E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}} [\Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{Trj}(E) \mid \mathcal{H}(E)] \neq 1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] \cdot r_{\mathcal{R}}^{E-1} \cdot \Pr_{\mathcal{A}}[\text{A wins in } \mathcal{G}_1 \mid \text{verification is passed}] = \text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1. \tag{3.23}$$

where we are using the same notation as in Lemma 14. Thus, what we wish to show is equivalent to showing that, for any adversary \mathcal{A} in \mathcal{G}_4 who passes verification with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$, the probability of querying the oracle at the encoded string E at any point after a successful verification is negligible.

Thus, we will show that (3.23) is negligible. First, notice that an adversary \mathcal{A} which passes verification in \mathcal{G}_4 with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$ and violates (3.23) immediately implies an adversary which succeeds at the following game \mathcal{E}_0 with non-negligible probability.

\mathcal{E}_0 : This is identical to \mathcal{G}_4 except we ask the adversary to return a guess

E^0 for the encoded string E , instead of a bit. \mathcal{A} wins if $E^0 = E$.

The reduction crucially uses the hypothesis that \mathcal{A} passes verification with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}_{\mathcal{A}}^1$. We will show through another sequence of hybrids (which we denote using tildes) that the optimal winning probability in \mathcal{E}_0 is negligible. This will complete the proof that the quantity

in (3.23), and thus ϵ is negligible, for any adversary A who passes verification with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} - \text{negl}^1_{-}$. Since the optimal winning probability in \mathcal{G}_3 and \mathcal{G}_4 is at least $\frac{1}{2}$ (the honest strategy followed by random guessing achieves $\frac{1}{2}$), this concludes the proof of Lemma 13, and hence that the optimal winning probability in \mathcal{G}_0 is at most $\frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}^1_{-}$. The following are the hybrids.

\mathcal{E}_1 : Instead of sampling $E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}$ and $\lambda \leftarrow \mathcal{L}$ at the beginning of the game, the lessor now prepares an EPR pair on two registers X and Y , and sends the registers $|q\rangle_{XY} = |j\rangle_X |i\rangle_Y$ to A . Rather than running $\text{SSL}\cdot\text{Verify}$ for verification and measuring the register Y , the lessor now measures both registers X and Y in the λ basis for a random $\lambda \leftarrow \mathcal{L}$, and checks if the outcomes result in the same string, which we denote by E .

\mathcal{E}_2 : This game is identical to the one before, except that we change the verification procedure as follows. Instead of measuring each of the registers X and Y in the λ basis, the lessor now measures a bipartite projector $\Pi_{\lambda}^{\text{eq}}$ in order to check if the registers XY yield the same outcome if measured in the λ basis. We define the projector as follows:

$$\Pi_{\lambda}^{\text{eq}} = \sum_{E \in \mathcal{E}} \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} |j\rangle_{\lambda} \langle j|_{\lambda} \otimes \sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} |i\rangle_{\lambda} \langle i|_{\lambda} \right) \cdot$$

Afterwards, the lessor measures register X in the λ basis to determine E .

We will denote these hybrids using a tilde to distinguish them from the original sequence of hybrids.

Lemma 15. $\mathcal{P}^1 \mathcal{E}_1^{\circ} = \mathcal{P}^1 \mathcal{E}_0^{\circ}$.

Proof. The argument is fairly standard. We consider the following two statements:

- sample $E \leftarrow \mathcal{E}$, let $\lambda \leftarrow \mathcal{L}$, and output $\sum_{\theta=1}^{\ell} |j\rangle_{\lambda} \langle j|_{\lambda}$.
- create an ℓ -qubit EPR pair $|q\rangle_{XY}$, measure X in the λ basis, and output register Y .

It is evident that the equivalence of the two statements implies that $\mathcal{P}^1 \mathcal{E}_1^{\circ}$ and $\mathcal{P}^1 \mathcal{E}_0^{\circ}$ are identical. Note that we omit the register $|j\rangle$ in the proof, since it is independent of the EPR registers and thus does not affect the argument. Consider the following family of projectors given by

$$P_{\lambda} = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{J}} |j\rangle_{\lambda} \langle j|_{\lambda} \otimes 1_Y \in \mathcal{E} \cdot$$

Let us now analyze the post-measurement state $|k_{Ei}\rangle \cdot \frac{\rho_{|k_{Ej}\rangle\langle k_{Ei}|}}{\text{tr}(\rho_{|k_{Ej}\rangle\langle k_{Ei}|})}$ with respect to the state given by $|k_{Ei}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{Ei}\rangle_{hEj} + |1\rangle_Y |j_{q^*}\rangle_i)$. We have,

$$\begin{aligned} |k_{Ei}\rangle_{XY} &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{Ei}\rangle_{hEj} + |1\rangle_Y |j_{q^*}\rangle_{XY}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|1\rangle_Y |j_{Ei}\rangle_{hEj} + |1\rangle_Y |1\rangle_Y |j_{q^*}\rangle_{XY}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|1\rangle_Y |j_{Ei}\rangle_{hEj} + |1\rangle_Y |1\rangle_Y |j_{q^*}\rangle_{XY}) \quad (\text{ricochet property}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{E^0}\rangle_X + |j_{E^0}\rangle_Y) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{E^0}\rangle_X + |j_{E^0}\rangle_Y) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{E^0}\rangle_X + |j_{E^0}\rangle_Y) \right) \end{aligned}$$

This proves the claim, since the Y register of $|k_{Ei}\rangle \cdot \frac{\rho_{|k_{Ej}\rangle\langle k_{Ei}|}}{\text{tr}(\rho_{|k_{Ej}\rangle\langle k_{Ei}|})}$ is identical to $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{E^0}\rangle_X + |j_{E^0}\rangle_Y)$. \square

Lemma 16. $\epsilon_2^0 = \epsilon_1^0$

Proof. The lemma is immediate as the measurement in $\tilde{\epsilon}_2$ is a coarse-graining of the measurement in $\tilde{\epsilon}_1$, with the acceptance condition remaining the same. \square

In the remaining part of the proof, we will show that ϵ_2^0 is negligible. The following is an important technical lemma, which is inspired by Lemma 16 and Lemma 19 in [127].

Lemma 17. $\epsilon_2^0 = \text{negl}^1_{-}$.

Proof. Let A be an adversary for ϵ_2 . Denote by E^0 the final guess returned by the adversary, and by E the encoded string. Let ok be a random variable for whether the verification passes. Then, the winning probability of A in ϵ_2 is given by:

$$\Pr[E^0 = E \wedge \text{ok}] = \frac{1}{4}.$$

We show that, for any $\ell \gg \frac{1}{\epsilon}$,

$$\Pr[E^0 = E \wedge \text{ok}] = \frac{1}{4} - 2^{-\ell} < \frac{1}{4} - 2^{-\frac{\ell-1}{2}}. \tag{3.24}$$

Picking $\ell = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ then gives the desired result, as the RHS becomes negligible in ϵ .

Fix a basis choice $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_{E^0}\rangle_X + |j_{E^0}\rangle_Y)$. Let r_1 be the state on registers X-Y and R in ϵ_2 after the verification, where R is the leftover register held onto by A that also includes the challenge g_1 (where g_1 was defined in Lemma 14) sent by the lessor after verification.

In the analysis that follows, it is convenient to approximate r_{λ} by an ideal state that is diagonal in a basis for the image of $\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR} \otimes 1_R$, where $\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR}$ is as defined in Lemma 8. Recall that $\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR}$ projects onto the subspace spanned by EPR pairs with up to ℓ Pauli errors, i.e., onto the space spanned by the orthogonal basis states $|jq_{01}^i\rangle : 0 \leq i \leq \ell-1$, where

$$|jq_{01}^i\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^\ell}} \sum_{E \in \mathcal{E}(\ell)} |jE\rangle \cdot \omega^{i \cdot \text{wt}(E)} \quad (3.25)$$

We can use Lemma 3 to argue that there exists such an ideal state r_{λ}^{id} , and that the trace distance between the two states satisfies:

$$\|r_{\lambda} - r_{\lambda}^{\text{id}}\|_{\text{tr}} \leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\text{Tr} \left(\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR} \otimes 1_R - r_{\lambda} \right)}.$$

We can represent the adversary's strategy in guessing E , after verification, by a projective measurement $\{E^0, \mathbb{1} - E^0\}$.

We are now ready to bound the probability $\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\}$. Let λ be a random variable for the basis choice made by the lessor. Then, by marginalizing over λ , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\} &= \mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1, \lambda\} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\} \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.26)$$

Fix any λ . Using Lemma 6 and Lemma 8 we obtain:

$$\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\} \leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\text{Tr} \left(\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR} \otimes 1_R - r_{\lambda} \right)} \quad (3.27)$$

Now, averaging over λ in the above inequality gives:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\Pr \{E^0 = E \mid \text{ok} = 1\} \right] \leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\text{Tr} \left(\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR} \otimes 1_R - r_{\lambda} \right) \right]} \quad (3.28)$$

where the last inequality follows from Jensen's inequality. We will proceed to bound the above term $\mathbb{E}_{\lambda} \left[\text{Tr} \left(\frac{1}{\ell} \text{EPR} \otimes 1_R - r_{\lambda} \right) \right]$ by $2^{-\ell}$. Let us first show that for any $0 \leq i \leq \ell-1$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \langle jq_{01}^i | r_{\lambda} | jq_{01}^i \rangle \leq 2^{-\ell} \quad (3.29)$$

This follows from considering the following two cases:

- $F^1 \mathcal{O} - F^1 \mathcal{I}^0$ ℓ : Using Lemma 7 we find that one of the following is true. Depending on λ , either $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i| = 0$ or $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i| = |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i|$. We also get that $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i| = 0$, since $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i| = |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i|$, and thus it follows that $\rho_{01} = 0$.
- $\max_{\lambda} F^1 \mathcal{O} - F^1 \mathcal{I}^0$ $\ell \leq 1$: Here, Lemma 7 implies that there are at most $2^{\ell} \cdot 2^{\ell-1}$ many values of λ for which it holds that $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i| < 0$, and thus $\rho_{01} \leq 2^{\ell} \cdot 2^{\ell-1} = 2^{\ell+1}$.

Observe now that $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}}$ and $|j q_{01}\rangle\langle i|$ are diagonal in the Bell basis, hence they commute. Lemma 7 implies that the same is also true for the projector $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}}$. For any fixed $\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}$, we express r_{λ} as a generic density operator on registers X, Y and R such that, for a finite index set \mathcal{I} , coefficients $\alpha_{\beta\gamma}$ and an orthogonal basis $|j k^{\beta-1}\rangle : \beta \in \mathcal{I}$ the registers X and Y:

$$r_{\lambda} = \sum_{\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{\beta\gamma} |j k^{\beta-1}\rangle\langle i k^{\gamma-1}|_{XY} \mathcal{F}_R^{\beta, \gamma-1} \tag{3.30}$$

where $\mathcal{F}^{\beta, \gamma-1}$ are matrices for indices $\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}$. Since we assumed that r_{λ} is the state conditioned on the verification being successful for some λ , we have the property that

$$\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R = r_{\lambda} \quad \forall \lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}. \tag{3.31}$$

In other words, r_{λ} on is invariant under the action of the projector $\text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} & E_{\lambda} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \mathbb{1}_R \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R \tag{Eq. (3.31)} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \sum_{\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{\beta\gamma} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i q_{01}| \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \sum_{\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{\beta\gamma} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i q_{01}| \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} \\ &= \sum_{\lambda \in \{0, 1, \dots, 2^{\ell}-1\}} \sum_{\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}} \alpha_{\beta\gamma} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i q_{01}| \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{EPR}} \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R r_{\lambda} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i q_{01}| \text{Tr}_{\ell}^{\text{eq}} \mathbb{1}_R \end{aligned}$$

In the third to last line, we inserted the complete set $\sum_{\beta, \gamma \in \mathcal{I}} |j q_{01}\rangle\langle i q_{01}| = \mathbb{1}$. Then, using the definition

Construction 4 (SSL scheme for compute-and-compare programs). Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. The secure software leasing scheme $\text{SSL-CC} = (\text{Gen}, \text{Lease}, \text{Eval}, \text{Verify})$ for compute-and-compare programs is defined by the following QPT algorithms:

- $\text{SSL-CC} \cdot \text{Gen}^{1-\lambda}$: Takes as input the security parameter λ . Then,
 - Let $sk \leftarrow \text{SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Gen}^{1-\lambda}$. Output sk .
- $\text{SSL-CC} \cdot \text{Lease}^{1-\lambda, sk, H}$: Takes as input a security parameter λ , a secret key sk , and a compute-and-compare program $C \in \mathcal{C}_{\lambda, H}$, specified succinctly by λ and H . Then,
 - Let $r \leftarrow \text{SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Lease}^{1-\lambda, sk, H}$. Output r .
- $\text{SSL-CC} \cdot \text{Eval}^{1-\lambda, r, G}$: Takes as input a security parameter λ , an alleged program copy r , and a string $G \in \{0, 1\}^*$ (where $|G|$ is the size of the inputs to λ). Then,
 - Compute $H^0 = H(r, G)$.
 - Let $1 \leftarrow \text{SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Eval}^{1-\lambda, r, H^0}$. Output 1 .
- $\text{SSL-CC} \cdot \text{Verify}^{1-\lambda, sk, H, r}$:
 - Let $1^0 \leftarrow \text{SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Verify}^{1-\lambda, sk, H, r}$. Output 1^0 .

Before we state the theorem, we first introduce several classes of distributions over compute-and-compare programs and input challenges. First, we define the distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\text{CC-UNP}}$ as follows.

- $\mathcal{D}_{\text{CC-UNP}}$. We refer to this class as the class of *unpredictable compute-and-compare programs*. This consists of ensembles $\mathcal{C} = \{C_\lambda\}$ where C_λ is a distribution over compute-and-compare programs such that $C_\lambda \in \mathcal{C}_{\lambda, H}$ satisfies $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^{1-\lambda}(C_\lambda) \geq \lambda^{-n}$ for some $n \geq 0$, and where the input length of C_λ is λ and the output length is bounded by some polynomial $\ell(\lambda)$.

We also define the following class of distributions over input challenges:

- $\mathcal{D}_{\text{CC-Chall-SSL}}$. An ensemble $\mathcal{C} = \{C_\lambda\}$, where each C_λ is a distribution over the domain of λ , belongs to the class $\mathcal{D}_{\text{CC-Chall-SSL}}$ if there exists an efficiently sampleable family $\mathcal{F} = \{f_\lambda\}$ of distributions over $\{0, 1\}^*$ with $\mathbf{H}_{\min}^{1-\lambda}(f_\lambda) \geq \lambda^{-n}$, for some $n \geq 0$, and an efficiently sampleable family $\mathcal{G} = \{g_\lambda\}$, where g_λ is a distribution over the set $\{0, 1\}^{\ell(\lambda)}$, such that C_λ is the following distribution (where λ is the size of inputs to C_λ):
 - with probability $1/2$, sample $l \leftarrow g_\lambda$ and output l .

- with probability $1/2$, sample $G \leftarrow \mathcal{G}$, and output G .

We say the ensemble \mathcal{G} is *specified* by the families $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$.

We also define two classes of distributions over pairs of programs and challenges.

- $D_{\text{CC-pairs-stat-SSL}}$ • This consists of pairs of ensembles $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H}) = (f_{\mathcal{G}}, f_{\mathcal{H}})$ where $\mathcal{G} \in D_{\text{CC-UNP}}$ and $\mathcal{H} \in D_{\text{CC-Chall-SSL}}$ satisfying the following. Let \mathcal{G} be specified by the families $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$, and denote by $\text{MarkedInput}_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ the distribution over $\{0, 1\}^{\ell_{\mathcal{G}}}$ induced by $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$, i.e.:
 - Sample $s \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$, then output $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}(s)$.

For any fixed s with domain $\{0, 1\}^{\ell_{\mathcal{G}}}$ such that s is in the support of $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ for some H , denote by $\text{MarkedInput}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^s$ the distribution $\text{MarkedInput}_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ conditioned on \mathcal{G} sampling s . Then, we require that, for any sequence $(s^i)_{i=1}^{\ell_{\mathcal{G}}}$ (where, for all i , s^i is in the support of $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ for some H) the families $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\text{MarkedInput}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{s^i}}$ are statistically indistinguishable.

- $D_{\text{CC-pairs-comp-SSL}}$ • This is defined in the same way as $D_{\text{CC-pairs-stat-SSL}}$, except that we only require $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\text{MarkedInput}_{\mathcal{G}, H}^{s^i}}$ to be *computationally* indistinguishable.

Theorem 6. *Let $(\text{SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Gen-SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Lease-SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Eval-SSL-PF} \cdot \text{Verify})^0$ be an SSL scheme for point functions that is secure with respect to all pairs $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^0) \in D_{\text{PF-pairs-stat-SSL}} \times D_{\text{PF-pairs-comp-SSL}}$. Then, the scheme of Construction 4 is a secure SSL scheme for compute-and-compare programs with respect to all pairs $(\mathcal{D}, \mathcal{D}^0) \in D_{\text{CC-pairs-stat-SSL}} \times D_{\text{CC-pairs-comp-SSL}}$. The same conclusion holds relative to any oracle, i.e., when all algorithms have access to the same oracle, with respect to query-bounded (computationally bounded) adversaries.*

We now give a proof of Theorem 6 via a reduction to the point function security experiment.

Proof of Theorem 6. We prove the claim for $(f_{\mathcal{G}}, f_{\mathcal{G}, H}) \in D_{\text{CC-pairs-stat-SSL}}$ only, since the case of $(f_{\mathcal{G}}, f_{\mathcal{G}, H}) \in D_{\text{CC-pairs-comp-SSL}}$ is virtually identical. Let $\ell_{\mathcal{G}}$ be the length of strings in the range of $f_{\mathcal{G}}$'s sampled from \mathcal{G} and let the ensemble $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ be specified by $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ (using the notation introduced above for ensembles in $D_{\text{CC-Chall-SSL}}$).

Let A be an adversary for the compute-and-compare SSL scheme of Construction 4 with respect to ensembles $f_{\mathcal{G}}$ and $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ who wins at the SSL security game with probability $\epsilon > 0$. It then follows that for each \mathcal{G} there exists s^1 such that s^1 is in the support of $f_{\mathcal{G}, H}$ for some H , and such that the probability that A wins is at least ϵ , conditioned on s^1 being sampled.

We will construct an adversary A^0 that wins with probability $2^{-\epsilon} - \text{negl}(\epsilon)$ in the point function security game with respect to the distributions $f_{\mathcal{L}^0}^0$ and $f_{\mathcal{H}^0}^0$, defined as follows:

- $f_{\mathcal{L}^0}^0$: sample G and output the point function $\%_{f^{-1}G}$.
- $f_{\mathcal{H}^0}^0$: sample G and output $f^{-1}G$.

The adversary A^0 against the point function SSL game acts as follows:

- A^0 receives a state r from the lessor, and then forwards $f^{-1}r$ to adversary A .
- A returns a supposed program copy \mathcal{F} for the point function to A^0 who then sends it back to the lessor for verification.
- Conditioning on the verification being successful, the lessor replies with a challenge input G . A^0 then samples G^0 from $f_{\mathcal{L}^0}^0$, and runs A with input challenge G^0 .
- Let 1 be the bit returned by A . The adversary A^0 replies with the same 1 to the lessor.

It is straightforward to check that the game “simulated” by A^0 for A is statistically indistinguishable from a security game with respect to $f_{\mathcal{L}^0}^0$ and $f_{\mathcal{H}^0}^0$, conditioned on f^{-1} . Thus, we deduce, by hypothesis, that A passes verification and returns the correct bit with probability at least $2^{-\epsilon} - \text{negl}(\epsilon)$, and thus A^0 wins with probability at least $2^{-\epsilon} - \text{negl}(\epsilon)$. Crucially, note that $f_{\mathcal{L}^0}^0 - f_{\mathcal{H}^0}^0 \in \text{D}_{\text{PF-pairs-stat-SSL}}$. It follows that if the SSL is secure, then the compute-and-compare scheme must also be secure.

We remark that the proof of the theorem statement relative to any oracle is analogous. \square

Chapter 4

REVOKING ENCRYPTED DATA: PUBLICLY-VERIFIABLE DELETION

Quantum information has the property that measurement is an inherently destructive process. This feature is most apparent in the principle of complementarity, which states that mutually incompatible observables cannot be measured at the same time. Broadbent and Islam [40] recently built on this aspect of quantum mechanics to realize a cryptographic notion called *certified deletion*. While this remarkable notion enables a classical verifier to be convinced that a quantum ciphertext has been deleted by an untrusted party, it offers no additional layer of functionality.

In this chapter, we use Gaussian superpositions over lattices to construct the first fully homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion—a protocol that enables an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and to also prove data deletion to a client.

Organization. First, we prove some basic facts about Gaussian superpositions in Section 4.2. Next, in Section 4.3, we generalize the notion of *collapsing* hashes and prove the strong Gaussian-collapsing property of the Ajtai hash function; this marks the main technical result of this chapter. In Section 4.4 we define the syntax and security of public-key encryption schemes with publicly-verifiable deletion. Then, in Section 4.5, we construct a Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion and prove its security. In Section 4.6, we define the syntax and security of homomorphic encryption schemes with publicly-verifiable deletion, which is analogous as in the public-key setting. In Section 4.7, we give the main construction of this chapter; namely, our Dual-Regev (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion. We prove that it achieves certified deletion security using a similar proof as for our public-key scheme. Finally, in Section 4.8, we describe a four-message protocol for FHE with simultaneous data deletion, which allows an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and to simultaneously prove data deletion to a client – all in a single interactive protocol.

4.1 Introduction

Data protection has become a major challenge in the age of cloud computing and artificial intelligence. The European Union, Argentina, and California recently introduced new data privacy regulations which grant individuals the right to request the deletion of their personal data by *media companies* and other *data collectors*—a legal concept that is commonly referred to as the *right to be forgotten* [63]. While new data privacy regulations have been put into practice in several jurisdictions, formalizing data deletion remains a fundamental challenge for classical cryptography.

A key question, in particular, prevails:

How can we certify that user data stored on a remote cloud server has been deleted?

Without any further assumptions, the task is clearly impossible to realize in conventional cloud computing. This is due to the fact that there is no way of preventing the data collector from generating and distributing additional copies of the user data. Although it is impossible to achieve in general, *proofs-of-secure-erasure* [108, 59] can achieve a limited notion of data deletion under *bounded memory assumptions*. Recently, Garg, Goldwasser and Vasudevan [63] proposed rigorous definitions that attempt to formalize the *right to be forgotten* from the perspective of classical cryptography. However, a fundamental challenge in the work of Garg et al. [63] lies in the fact that the data collector is always assumed to be *honest*, which clearly limits the scope of the formalism.

A recent exciting idea is to use quantum information in the context of data privacy [51, 41]. Contrary to classical data, it is fundamentally impossible to create copies of an unknown quantum state thanks to the *quantum no-cloning theorem* [135]. Broadbent and Islam [41] proposed a quantum encryption scheme which enables a user to certify the deletion of a quantum ciphertext. Unlike classical proofs-of-secure-erasure, this cryptographic notion of certified deletion is achievable unconditionally in a fully malicious adversarial setting [41]. All prior protocols for certified deletion enable a client to delegate data in the form of plaintexts and ciphertexts with no additional layer of functionality. A key question raised by Broadbent and Islam [41] is the following:

Can we enable a remote cloud server to compute on encrypted data, while simultaneously allowing the server to prove data deletion to a client?

This cryptographic notion can be seen as an extension of homomorphic encryption schemes [113, 66, 37] which allow for arbitrary computations over encrypted data. Prior work on certified deletion makes use of very specific encryption schemes that seem incompatible with such a functionality; for example, the private-key encryption scheme of Broadbent and Islam [41] requires a classical *one-time pad*, whereas the authors in [83] use a particular *hybrid encryption* scheme in the context of public-key cryptography. While homomorphic encryption enables a wide range of applications including private queries to a search engine and machine learning classification on encrypted data [35], a fundamental limitation remains: once the protocol is complete, the cloud server is still in possession of the client's encrypted data. This may allow a malicious adversary to break the encryption scheme retrospectively – long after the execution of the protocol. Long-term security is especially relevant for data which is required to remain confidential for many years; for example, such as private medical records or sensitive government secrets.

Fully homomorphic encryption with certified deletion seeks to address this limitation as it allows a quantum cloud server to compute on encrypted data while also enabling the server to prove data deletion to a client, thus effectively achieving a form of *everlasting security* [104, 82].

Technical overview

How can we certify that sensitive information has been deleted by an untrusted party? Quantum information allows us to achieve a cryptographic notion called *certified deletion* [51, 61, 41]. The main idea behind this concept is the *principle of complementarity*. This feature allows us to encode information in mutually incompatible bases—a notion that has no counterpart in a classical world.

Broadbent and Islam [41] construct a private-key quantum encryption scheme with certified deletion using a BB84-type protocol that closely resembles the standard quantum key distribution (QKD) protocol [29, 122]. The crucial idea behind the scheme is that the information which is necessary to decrypt is encoded in the *computational basis*, whereas *certifying deletion* requires a measurement in the incompatible *Hadamard basis*. The scheme in [41] achieves a rigorous notion of certified deletion security: once the ciphertext is successfully deleted, the plaintext \llcorner remains hidden even if the private key is later revealed. Using a standard *hybrid encryption scheme*, Hiroka, Morimae, Nishimaki and Yamakawa [83] extended the scheme in [41] to both public-key and attribute-based encryption with certified deletion via the notion of *receiver non-committing* (RNC) encryption [87, 45]. The security proof in [83] relies heavily on the fact that the classical public-key encryption is *non-committing*, i.e., it comes with the ability to equivocate ciphertexts to encryptions of arbitrary plaintexts. As a complementary result, the authors also gave a public-key encryption scheme with certified deletion which is *publicly verifiable* assuming the existence of one-shot signatures and extractable witness encryption. This property enables anyone to verify a deletion certificate using a publicly available verification key.

All prior protocols for certified deletion enable a client to delegate data in the form of ciphertexts with no additional layer of functionality. In this chapter, we answer a question raised by Broadbent and Islam [41] affirmatively, namely whether it is possible to construct a *homomorphic* quantum encryption scheme with certified deletion. This cryptographic notion is remarkably powerful as it would allow a quantum cloud server to compute on encrypted data, while simultaneously enabling the server to prove data deletion to a client. So far, however, none of the encryption schemes with certified deletion can enable such a functionality. Worse yet, the hybrid encryption paradigm appears insufficient in order to construct homomorphic encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion, and thus an entirely new approach is necessary.

Our techniques deviate from the hybrid encryption paradigm of previous works [41, 82] and allow us to construct the *first* homomorphic quantum encryption scheme with certified deletion which

has the desirable feature of being publicly verifiable. The main technical ingredient of our scheme is a protocol by which a quantum prover can convince a classical verifier that a sample from the *Learning with Errors* [112] distribution in the form of a quantum state was deleted.

Quantum superpositions of LWE samples. The *Learning with Errors* ¹LWE^o problem was introduced by Regev [112] and has given rise to numerous cryptographic applications, including public-key encryption [68], homomorphic encryption [37, 69] and attribute-based encryption [33].

The problem is described as follows. Let $n < 2N$ and $q \geq 2$ be a prime modulus, and $U \in [0, 1]^n$ be a noise ratio parameter. In its decisional formulation, the $\text{LWE}_{n, U, q}^{\leq}$ problem asks to distinguish between a sample $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{e}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n} \times \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ from the LWE distribution and a uniformly random sample $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{u}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n} \times \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. Here, $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ is a uniformly random vector and $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ is a vector which is sampled according to the discrete Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n, U}$. The latter assigns probability proportional to $r_A^{-1} \mathbf{x}^0 = 4^{-cn} \exp(-\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^0 \cdot \mathbf{x}^0)$ to every lattice point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, for $A = U \cdot q$.

How can we certify whether a malicious party has deleted a sample from the LWE distribution? Our main technical insight is that one can encode LWE samples as *quantum superpositions* for the purpose of certified deletion while simultaneously preserving their full cryptographic functionality. Superpositions of LWE samples have been considered by Grilo, Kerenidis, and Zijlstra [77] in the context of quantum learning theory and by Alagic, Jeffery, Ozols, and Poremba [11], as well as by Chen, Liu, and Zhandry [48], in the context of quantum cryptanalysis of LWE-based cryptosystems. Let us now describe the main idea behind our constructions. Consider the Gaussian superposition,

$$|\hat{k}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n, U}}(\mathbf{x}) |\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} \pmod{q}\rangle.$$

Here, we let $f = 1 \cdot U$ and use \mathbb{Z}_q^n to represent $\mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \left[\frac{q}{2}, \frac{q}{2} \right)$. By measuring system \cdot in the computational basis with outcome $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, the state $|\hat{k}\rangle$ *collapses* into the quantum superposition

$$|\hat{k}_{\mathbf{y}}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{\substack{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n: \\ \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q}}} r_{\mathcal{D}_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n, U}}(\mathbf{x}) |\mathbf{x}\rangle. \quad (4.1)$$

Note that the state $|\hat{k}_{\mathbf{y}}\rangle$ is now a superposition of *short* Gaussian-weighted solutions $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ subject to the constraint $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{q}$. In other words, by measuring the above state in the computational basis, we obtain a solution to the so-called (*inhomogenous*) *short integer solution* ¹ISIS^o problem specified by (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{y}) (see Definition 12). The quantum state $|\hat{k}_{\mathbf{y}}\rangle$ in Eq. (4.1) has the

¹A tail bound shows that $\mathcal{D}_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n, f}$ is essentially only supported on $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{q}{2} \sqrt{\log q}\}$. We choose $f \in [0, \frac{q}{2} \sqrt{\log q}]$ and consider the domain $\mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \left[\frac{q}{2}, \frac{q}{2} \right)$ instead. For simplicity, we also ignore that $|\hat{k}\rangle$ is not normalized.

following *duality property*; namely, by applying the (inverse) $@$ -ary quantum Fourier transform, we obtain the state

$$|jky\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2Z_{@} e 2Z_{@}^{\leq}}} \sum_{s \in 2Z_{@} e 2Z_{@}^{\leq}} r_{\frac{s}{T}} e^{i \langle s, y \rangle} |js\rangle_{\mathbf{A}, e} \text{ mod } @ \quad (4.2)$$

where $l_{@} = 4^{2C_{@}^{\leq}}$ is the primitive $@$ -th root of unity. We make this statement more precise in [Lemma 20](#). Throughout this work, we will refer to $|jky\rangle$ and $|j\hat{k}_y\rangle$ as the *primal* and *dual* Gaussian state, respectively. Notice that the resulting state $|jky\rangle$ is now a quantum superposition of samples from the LWE distribution. This relationship was first observed in the work of Stehlé et al. [120] who gave quantum reduction from SIS to LWE based on Regev's reduction [112], and was later implicitly used by Roberts [115] and Kitagawa et al. [90] to construct quantum money and secure software leasing schemes.

Our quantum encryption schemes with certified deletion exploit the fact that a measurement of $|jky\rangle$ in the *Fourier basis* yields a short solution to the ISIS problem specified by $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{y}^0$, whereas ciphertext information which is necessary to decrypt is encoded using LWE samples in the *computational basis*.

Dual-Regev public-key encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion. The key ingredient of our homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion is the *Dual-Regev* public-key encryption scheme introduced by Gentry, Peikert, and Vaikuntanathan [68]. Using Gaussian states, we can encode Dual-Regev ciphertexts for the purpose of certified deletion while simultaneously preserving their full cryptographic functionality. Our scheme consists of the following efficient algorithms:

- To generate a pair of keys (sk, pk) , sample a random $\mathbf{A} \in Z_{@}^{\leq, 1}$ together with a particular short trapdoor vector $\mathbf{t} \in Z_{@}^{\leq, 1}$ such that $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{0} \text{ mod } @$. Let $pk = \mathbf{A}$ and $sk = \mathbf{t}$.
- To encrypt $1 \in \{0, 1\}$ using $pk = \mathbf{A}$, generate the following for a random $\mathbf{y} \in Z_{@}^{\leq}$:

$$vk = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{y}^0 \quad |jCT\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2Z_{@} e 2Z_{@}^{\leq, 1}}} \sum_{s \in 2Z_{@} e 2Z_{@}^{\leq, 1}} r_{\frac{s}{T}} e^{i \langle s, \mathbf{y} \rangle} |js\rangle_{\mathbf{A}, e} \text{ mod } @ \text{ mod } \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{c}^0$$

where vk is a public verification key and $|jCT\rangle$ is the quantum ciphertext for $f_j = 0$.

- To decrypt $|jCT\rangle$ using sk , measure in the computational basis to obtain $\mathbf{c} \in Z_{@}^{\leq, 1}$, and output 0, if $\|\mathbf{c} - sk\| \in Z_{@}$ is closer to 0 than to $\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{c}$, and output 1, otherwise. Here $sk = \mathbf{t}$ is chosen such that $\mathbf{c} - sk$ yields an approximation of $1 - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{c}$ from which we can recover 1.

To delete the ciphertext $|c\rangle$, we simply perform measurement in the Fourier basis. In [Corollary 2](#), we show that the Fourier transform of the ciphertext $|c\rangle$ results in the *dual* quantum state

$$|c\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|Z_{\mathcal{A}}^{\leq 1}|}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in Z_{\mathcal{A}}^{\leq 1}: \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{\mathcal{A}}} r_{\mathbf{f}}^{-1} \chi^{\mathbf{x}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{A}|}} \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{A}} \chi^{\mathbf{z} \cdot \mathbf{x}} |z\rangle. \quad (4.3)$$

Notice that a Fourier basis measurement of $|c\rangle$ necessarily erases all information about the plaintext $\mathbf{x} \in Z_{\mathcal{A}}^{\leq 1}$ and results in a *short* vector $\mathbf{c} \in Z_{\mathcal{A}}^{\leq 1}$ such that $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{y} \pmod{\mathcal{A}}$. In other words, to verify a deletion certificate we can simply check whether it is a solution to the ISIS problem specified by the verification key $\text{vk} = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{y}$. Our scheme has the desirable property that verification of a certificate \mathbf{c} is public; meaning anyone in possession of $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ can verify that $|c\rangle$ has been successfully deleted. Moreover, due to the tight connection between worst-case lattice problems and the average-case ISIS problem [103, 68], it is computationally difficult to produce a valid deletion certificate from $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ alone.

To formalize security, we consider the notion of (everlasting) *certified deletion security* (i.e., EV-CD security) which was proposed by Bartusek and Khurana [23] as a strengthening of the original notion by Broadbent and Islam [40]. Roughly speaking, EV-CD security guarantees that, once deletion of the ciphertext is successful, the plaintext remains hidden even if the adversary is subsequently allowed to run in unbounded time (see [Definition 34](#)). We prove the security of our schemes by exploiting a strong *collapsing*-type property of the Ajtai hash function which we show under the quantum hardness of LWE and SIS. This is our main technical result in this chapter.

Gaussian-collapsing hash functions. Unruh [125] introduced the notion of collapsing hash functions in his seminal work on computationally binding quantum commitments. Informally, a hash function \mathcal{H} is called *collapsing* if it is computationally difficult to distinguish between a superposition of pre-images, i.e., $\frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{X}|}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}: \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}} U_{\mathbf{x}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle$, and a single measured pre-image $|\mathbf{x}_0\rangle$ such that $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}$. Motivated by the properties of the dual Gaussian state in Eq. (4.1), we consider a special class of hash functions which are *collapsing* with respect to Gaussian superpositions. We say that a hash function \mathcal{H} is *f-Gaussian-collapsing* (formally defined in [Definition 30](#)), for some $f \geq 0$, if the following states are computationally indistinguishable:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{X}|}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}: \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{y}} r_{\mathbf{f}}^{-1} \chi^{\mathbf{x}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle \quad \approx \quad |\mathbf{x}_0\rangle \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{y}.$$

Here, \mathbf{x}_0 is the result of a computational basis measurement of the the Gaussian superposition (on the left). Notice that any collapsing hash function \mathcal{H} is necessarily also *Gaussian-collapsing*, since a superposition of Gaussian-weighted vectors constitutes a special class of inputs to \mathcal{H} . Liu and Zhandry [97] implicitly showed that the *Ajtai hash function* $\mathcal{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x} \pmod{\mathcal{A}}$ is collapsing—and thus *Gaussian-collapsing*—via the notion of *lossy functions* and (decisional) LWE. As a first

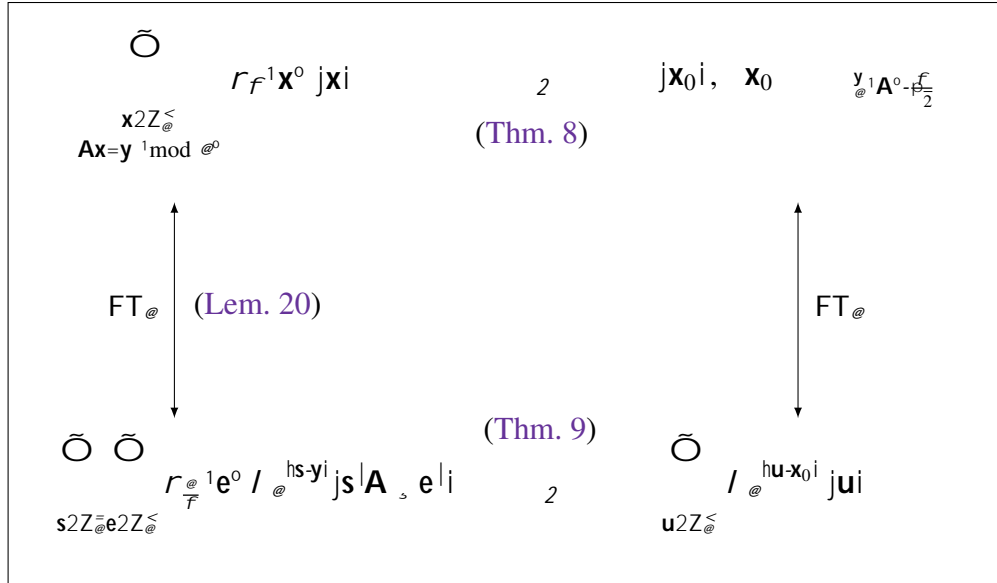


Figure 4.1: Technical overview of Gaussian superposition states and their properties used throughout this work. The computational indistinguishability property holds under the (subexponential) hardness of the LWE assumption (Definition 14). Here, $\frac{y}{q^2} \mathbf{A}^0 = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}^{-1} \pmod{q^2} \}$ denotes a coset of the lattice $\frac{1}{q^2} \mathbf{A}^0 = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}^{-1} \pmod{q^2} \}$ defined in Section 2.6.

preliminary result, we give a simple and direct proof (Theorem 8) of the Gaussian-collapsing property assuming the hardness of decisional LWE, which might be of independent interest.

The fact Ajtai’s hash function is Gaussian-collapsing has several implications for the security of our schemes. Because our Dual-Regev ciphertext corresponds to the Fourier transform of the state in Eq. (4.3), the Gaussian-collapsing property immediately implies the semantic (i.e., IND-CPA) security under decisional LWE (see Theorem 9). We refer to Figure 4.1 for an overview of our Gaussian states and their properties.

To prove the stronger notion of EV-CD security of our Dual-Regev scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion, we have to show that, once deletion has taken place, the plaintext remains information-theoretically hidden from the view of the adversary. We observe that it is sufficient to show that Ajtai’s hash function satisfies a particular *strong Gaussian-collapsing property*, namely, once an adversary A produces a valid short certificate c with the property that $\mathbf{A} c = \mathbf{y}^{-1} \pmod{q^2}$, then A cannot tell whether the input at the beginning of the experiment it received a Gaussian superposition of pre-images or a single (measured) pre-image, even if A is now allowed to run in unbounded time. Here, it is crucial that A is unbounded only *after* A provides a valid pre-image witness c , otherwise A could trivially distinguish the two states by applying the Fourier transform and distinguishing between a superposition of LWE samples and a uniform superposition. We prove the strong Gaussian-collapsing property in Theorem 10, assuming the hardness of LWE and SIS.

We then go on to prove the following result in [Theorem 12](#):

Theorem (Informal). Our Dual-Regev encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion (see [Construction 5](#)) is EV-CD-secure, assuming the quantum subexponential hardness of SIS.

To gain some intuition for why the strong Gaussian-collapsing property holds, consider the following natural attack. Given as input either a Gaussian superposition of pre-images or a single (measured) pre-image, we perform the quantum Fourier transform, reversibly shift the outcome by another sample and store the result in an auxiliary register. If the input corresponds to a superposition, we obtain a separate sample which is re-randomized whereas if the input is a single (measured) pre-image, the outcome remains random. Hence, if the aforementioned procedure succeeded without disturbing the initial quantum state, we could potentially provide a valid certificate and also distinguish the auxiliary system once we are allowed to be computationally unbounded. However, by shifting the state by another sample, we have necessarily entangled the two systems in a way that prevents us from finding a valid certificate via a Fourier basis measurement. We give a formal proof of the strong Gaussian-collapsing property in [Theorem 10](#).

Next, we extend our Dual-Regev scheme towards a (leveled) scheme with certified deletion.

Dual-Regev fully homomorphic encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion. Our (leveled) FHE scheme with certified deletion is based on the (classical) Dual-Regev leveled scheme used by Mahadev [99] a variant of the scheme due to Gentry, Sahai and Waters [69]. Let $n < 2N$, let q be a prime modulus, and let $\epsilon > 0$ be the noise ratio with $\epsilon = 1/U$. Let $\beta = 1/\epsilon$ and let $G \in \mathbb{Z}_{q, \beta}^{n \times n}$ denote the so-called power- β gadget matrix (defined in [Section 4.7](#)). The scheme consists of the following efficient algorithms:

- ^ To generate a pair of keys (sk, pk) , sample $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{q, \beta}^{n \times n}$ together with a particular short trapdoor vector $t \in \mathbb{Z}^{<, 1}$ such that $At = 0 \pmod{q}$, and let $sk = A$ and $pk = t$.
- ^ To encrypt a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ using the public key $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{q, \beta}^{n \times n}$, generate the following pair consisting of a classical verification key and quantum ciphertext for a random $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ with columns $y_1, \dots, y_n \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$:

$$vk = (A, t), \quad \tilde{O} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{O} & \tilde{O} \\ \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \quad r = \begin{pmatrix} r_1 & \dots & r_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n} \text{ with } \text{Tr}(r^T y_i) = b + \epsilon \|y_i\|^2$$

where $G \in \mathbb{Z}_{q, \beta}^{n \times n}$ denotes the gadget matrix and where $\epsilon = 1/U$.

²To smudge the Gaussian error of the initial superposition, we can choose an error from a discrete Gaussian distribution which has a significantly larger standard deviation.

^ To decrypt a quantum ciphertext ρ using the secret key sk , measure in the computational basis to obtain an outcome $c \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{\ell}$ and compute $d = sk \cdot c \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{\ell}$ where $c_{\#} \in \mathbb{Z}_2^{\ell}$ is the $\#$ -th column of C , and then output 0, if d is closer to 0 than to $b_{\frac{1}{2}}c$, and output 1, otherwise.

Deletion and verification take place exactly as in our Dual-Regev scheme with certified deletion.

In [Theorem 15](#), we prove that our scheme satisfies the same notion of certified deletion security which we previously considered in the context of (regular) public-key encryption.

Theorem. Our Dual-Regev (levelled) FHE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion ([Construction 7](#)) is EV-CD-secure, assuming the quantum subexponential hardness of LWE and SIS.

Our FHE scheme supports the evaluation of polynomial-sized Boolean circuits consisting entirely of NAND gates, which are universal for classical computation. Inspired by the classical homomorphic NAND operation of the Dual-Regev scheme [[69](#), [99](#)], we define an analogous quantum operation \ast_{NAND} in [Definition 38](#) which allows us to apply a NAND gate directly onto Gaussian states. When applying homomorphic operations, the new ciphertext maintains the form LWE sample with respect to the same public key, albeit for a new LWE secret and a new (non-necessarily Gaussian) noise term of bounded magnitude. Notice, however, that the resulting ciphertext is now a highly entangled state since the unitary operation \ast_{NAND} induces entanglement between LWE secrets and Gaussian error terms of the superposition. This raises the following question: How can a server perform homomorphic computations and, if requested, to also prove data deletion to a client? In some sense, applying a single homomorphic NAND gates breaks the structure of the Gaussian states in a way that prevents us from obtaining a valid deletion certificate via a Fourier basis measurement. At first sight, it seems as if applying homomorphic operations and proving data deletion are two mutually exclusive properties. Indeed, our basic Dual-Regev encryption scheme in [Construction 7](#) only supports homomorphic operations and publicly-verifiable deletion as separate properties.

It is natural to ask whether it is possible to achieve both tasks simultaneously, say in a protocol between a client and an untrusted server. Remarkably, such a protocol would allow an untrusted server to compute on private data and, if requested, to simultaneously prove data deletion to a client. We show that such a protocol is indeed possible, albeit with a few important caveats which we explain in [Section 4.8](#). In [Protocol 1](#), we describe a four-message protocol FHE with simultaneous data deletion which is based on our Dual-Regev scheme in [Construction 7](#). To resolve the aforementioned technical issue, we introduce additional interaction between the server and the client (which is not required for a conventional homomorphic encryption scheme). After performing a Boolean circuit via a sequence of \ast_{NAND} gates starting from the ciphertext $\rho =$

$\rho_{CT} = \rho_{CT} \otimes \rho_{in}$ in system ρ_{in} corresponding to an encryption $G = G_1 \dots G_n$, the server simply sends the quantum system containing an encryption of ρ to the client. Then, using the secret key (i.e., a trapdoor for the public matrix), it is possible for the client to extract the outcome ρ from the system ρ_{out} with overwhelming probability without significantly damaging the state. We show that it is possible to rewind the procedure in a way that results in a state which is negligibly close to the original state in system ρ_{out} . At this step of the protocol, the client has learned the outcome of the homomorphic application of the circuit, but the server is still in possession of a large number of auxiliary systems (denoted ρ_{aux}) which mark intermediate applications of the gates. We remark that this is where the standard protocol ends. In order to enable certified deletion, the client must now return the system ρ_{out} to the server. Having access to all three systems $\rho_{in}, \rho_{aux}, \rho_{out}$, the server is then able to undo the sequence of homomorphic NAND gates in order to return to the original product state in system ρ_{in} (up to negligible trace distance). Since the ciphertext in the server's possession is now approximately a simple product of Gaussian states, the server can perform a Fourier basis measurement of systems ρ_{in} , as required. Once the protocol is complete, it is therefore possible for the client to know ρ and to be convinced that data deletion has taken place. In Section 4.8, we show that our four-message protocol indeed achieves certified deletion, provided that the server exists during the homomorphic evaluation phase of the protocol.

Related work

The first work to formalize a notion resembling certified deletion is due to Unruh [127] who proposed a quantum timed-release encryption scheme that is revocable. The protocol allows a user to return the ciphertext of a quantum timed-release encryption scheme, thereby losing all access to the data. Unruh's security proof exploits the monogamy of entanglement in order to guarantee that the quantum revocation process necessarily erases all information about the plaintext. Fu and Miller [61] gave the first quantum protocol that proves deletion of a single bit using classical interaction alone. Subsequently, Coiteux-Roy and Wolf [51] proposed a like-conjugate coding protocol that enables certified deletion of a classical plaintext, albeit without a complete security proof. Independently of [51], Broadbent and Islam [41] construct a private-key quantum encryption scheme with a rigorous definition of certified deletion using a BB84-type protocol that closely resembles the standard quantum key distribution protocol [29, 122]. There, the ciphertext (without the optional quantum error correction part) consists of random BB84 states $\rho_i = \frac{1}{2}(\rho_{0i} + \rho_{1i})$ together with a one-time pad encryption of the form $G_{\lambda_{8=0}^0} \rho < D$, where D is a random string (i.e., a one-time pad key), G is a two-universal hash function and $G_{\lambda_{8=0}^0}$ is the substring of G to which no Hadamard gate is applied. The main idea behind the scheme is that the information which is necessary to decrypt is encoded in a computational

basis whereas certifying deletion requires a Hadamard basis measurement. Therefore, if the verification of a deletion certificate is successful, $\rho_{A, \delta=0}$ must have high entropy, and thus $\rho_{A, \delta=0}$ is statistically close to uniform (i.e. serves as an extractor). The private-key quantum encryption scheme of Broadbent and Islam [41] achieves the notion of certified deletion security once the ciphertext is successfully deleted, the plaintext remains hidden even if the private key is later revealed. Using a standard hybrid encryption scheme, Hiroka, Morimae, Nishimaki and Yamakawa [83] extended the scheme in [41] to both public-key and attribute-based encryption with certified deletion via the notion of receiver non-committing (RNC) encryption [87, 45]; for example, to obtain a public-key encryption scheme with certified deletion, one simply outputs a quantum ciphertext of the [41] scheme together with a classical (non-committing) public-key encryption of its private key. Given access to the RNC secret key, it is therefore possible to decrypt the quantum ciphertext. Crucially, the hybrid encryption scheme also inherits the certified deletion property of the [41] scheme; namely, once deletion has taken place, the plaintext remains hidden even if the RNC secret key is later revealed. The security proof in [83] relies heavily on the fact that the classical public-key encryption is non-committing i.e. it comes with the ability to equivocate ciphertexts to encryptions of arbitrary plaintexts. To obtain a homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion, one would have to instantiate the hybrid encryption scheme with a classical (non-committing) homomorphic encryption scheme which is not known to exist. While generic transformations for non-committing encryption have been studied [91], they tend to be incompatible with basic homomorphic computations. Moreover, it is unclear whether the candidate hybrid approach for homomorphic encryption is even secure: for all we know, a malicious adversary could use homomorphic evaluation to decouple the quantum part from the classical part of the ciphertext in order to obtain a classical encryption of the plaintext, thereby violating certified deletion security.

Hiroka, Morimae, Nishimaki and Yamakawa [82] studied certified everlasting zero-knowledge proofs for QMA via the notion of everlasting security which was first formalized by Müller-Quade and Unruh [104]. A recent paper by Coladangelo, Liu, Liu, and Zhandry [53] introduced subspace coset states in the context of unclonable cryptography in a way that loosely resembles our use of primal and dual Gaussian states. In concurrent work, Bartusek and Khurana [23] consider generic transformations for encryption schemes with certified deletion. Similar to Broadbent and Islam [41], they use a hybrid approach via BB84 states to construct public-key, attribute-based and homomorphic encryption schemes with certified everlasting security once deletion is successful, the security notion guarantees that the plaintext remains hidden even if the adversary is henceforth computationally unbounded. However, in contrast with our results, their notion only considers deletion certificates which are privately verifiable. Finally, we remark that subsequent follow-up work by Bartusek et al. [25] has since constructed encryption schemes with public verification

(assuming the existence of post-quantum indistinguishability obfuscation) as well as a secure blind delegation protocol with certified deletion via succinct non-interactive arguments (SNARGs) for polynomial-time computation, which can be constructed from [120].

4.2 Primal and Dual Gaussian States

Gaussian superpositions first appeared in Regev's quantum reduction from worst-case lattice problems to LWE, and have also been used by Stehlé et al. [120] who gave a quantum reduction from the SIS problem to the LWE problem. Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, a Gaussian superposition over \mathbb{Z}^n is a pure state of the form

$$|\mathbf{k}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{2\pi i \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle.$$

Note that the state $|\mathbf{k}\rangle$ is not normalized for convenience and ease of notation. The tail bound in Lemma 11 implies that (the normalized variant $|\mathbf{k}\rangle$) is within negligible trace distance of a truncated discrete Gaussian superposition with support $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{q}{2}\}$, where

$$|\mathbf{k}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{2\pi i \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \|\mathbf{x}\| \leq \frac{q}{2}} e^{2\pi i \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{a}} |\mathbf{x}\rangle + \text{negligible error}.$$

In this section, we consider Gaussian superpositions with parameter $q > 0$ which can be efficiently implemented using standard quantum state preparation techniques; for example using quantum rejection sampling and the Grover-Rudolph algorithm [78, 112, 36, 38].

Our Dual-Regev-type encryption schemes with certified deletion in Section 4.5 and Section 4.7 rely on two types of Gaussian superpositions, which we call primal and dual Gaussian states. The former (i.e., primal) state corresponds to a quantum superposition over q samples with respect to a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$, and (up to a phase) can be thought of as a superposition of Gaussian balls around random lattice vectors in \mathbb{Z}^n . The latter (i.e., dual) state corresponds to a Gaussian superposition over a particular coset,

$$\mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z} \text{ mod } q\}$$

of the q -ary lattice $\mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y} = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{Z}^n : \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z} \text{ mod } q\}$ defined in Section 2.6.

Our terminology regarding which state is primal and which state is dual is completely arbitrary. In fact, the q -ary lattices $\mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y}$ and $\mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y}'$ are both dual to each other (up to scaling), and satisfy

$$\mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y} = \mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y}' \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y}' = \mathbb{Z}^n + \mathbf{y}.$$

We choose to refer to the superposition of LWE samples as the primal Gaussian state because it corresponds directly to the ciphertexts of our encryption scheme, whereas the Fourier mode is only used in order to prove deletion.

We define primal and dual Gaussian states as follows.

Definition 28 (Gaussian states) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ be an integer modulus and $\alpha \in (0, 1]$. Then,

(primal Gaussian state:) for $a \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $s \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, we let

$$|k_{A,y}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(|x - a - sy\rangle) e^{i \frac{2\pi}{p} \langle x, a \rangle} |x\rangle$$

(dual Gaussian state:) for $a \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ and $s \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, we let

$$|\hat{k}_{A,y}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(|x - a - sy\rangle) |x\rangle$$

For simplicity, we oftentimes drop the subscript A and write $|k_y\rangle$ and $|\hat{k}_y\rangle$, respectively.

Duality lemma

In this section, we prove a lemma which states that, up to negligible trace distance, the primal and dual Gaussian states in Definition 28 are related via the quantum Fourier transform.

First, we show the following technical result.

Lemma 19. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ a modulus and let $\alpha \in (0, 1]$. Consider the quantum states,

$$|k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(|x\rangle) \quad \text{and} \quad |q\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(|x - a\rangle)$$

where r_{α} is the periodic Gaussian from Definition 7. Then, the normalized variants of the Gaussian superpositions $|k\rangle$ and $|q\rangle$ above satisfy

$$\langle k | h | k \rangle = \langle q | h | q \rangle \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{p} \alpha^2 \langle a, a \rangle}}$$

Proof. We consider the following two distributions over $\mathbb{Z}^n \setminus \{0\}$ given by

$$f(x) = \frac{r_{\alpha}(x)}{\sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(y)} \quad \text{and} \quad f_{-a}(x) = \frac{r_{\alpha}(x - a)}{\sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}^n} r_{\alpha}(y - a)} \tag{4.4}$$

We first bound the Hellinger distance,

$$d_H^2(\rho_f - \rho_{f-\omega}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} - \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_{f-\omega}} \right|^2 dx \tag{4.5}$$

where we define the two normalization factors

$$\frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} = \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \rho_f^{-1} y^0 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_{f-\omega}} = \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \rho_{f-\omega}^{-1} y^0. \tag{4.6}$$

From Lemma 14, it follows for any $x \in \mathbb{Z}^2 \setminus \frac{\omega}{2}\mathbb{Z}^2$ that

$$\left| \frac{\rho_f^{-1}(x)}{\rho_{f-\omega}^{-1}(x)} - 1 \right| \leq 2^{-\frac{1}{2} \|\omega\|_2^2} < \frac{1}{2} \quad \rho_f^{-1}(x) \approx \rho_{f-\omega}^{-1}(x). \tag{4.7}$$

Plugging in Eq. (4.7), we can bound the Hellinger distance as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} d_H^2(\rho_f - \rho_{f-\omega}) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} - \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_{f-\omega}} \right|^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_{f-\omega}} - 1 \right) \right|^2 dx \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \right|^2 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_{f-\omega}} - 1 \right)^2 dx \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \right|^2 \frac{1}{2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \right|^2 dx. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, it holds that

$$\left| \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \right|^2 dx - \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_{f-\omega}} \right|^2 dx \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} \left| \frac{\tilde{O}}{\rho_f} \right|^2 dx.$$

□

We are now ready to prove the so-called duality lemma.

Lemma 20 (Duality lemma) Let $q \geq 2N$ and $p \geq 2$ be a prime modulus and $\omega \in \mathbb{Z}_q^2$ with $\|\omega\|_2 \leq \frac{q}{8}$.

Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{2 \times 2}$ be a matrix whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^2 and let $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^2$ be an arbitrary vector. Then, up to negligible trace distance, the (normalized variants of the) primal and dual Gaussian states are related via the quantum Fourier transform:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{FT}_{\omega}^y(|j\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2}) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{q^2}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^2} \rho_f^{-1}(x) |j+x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2}; \\ \text{FT}_{\omega}^y(|j\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2}) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{q^2}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^2} \rho_{f-\omega}^{-1}(x) |j+x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^2} e^{i \langle \omega, x \rangle}. \end{aligned}$$

where $\epsilon: N \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is a negligible function in the parameter $2N$.

Proof. Let $y \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ be an arbitrary vector and recall that the dual Gaussian cosets given by

$$j_{\mathbb{Z}^n}^{\hat{y}} = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T y} \quad (4.8)$$

We denote by $\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : Ax = y \pmod{\mathbb{Z}^n}\}$ be the associated coset of the lattice \mathbb{Z}^n . Consider now the Gaussian superposition over the entire lattice coset formally defined by

$$j_{\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda}^{\hat{y}} = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T y} \quad (4.9)$$

Since $\|y\| \leq \frac{p}{8}$, it follows from the tail bound in Lemma 12 that the state in (4.8) is within negligible trace distance of the state in Eq. (4.9). Applying the (inverse) Fourier transform, we get

$$j_{\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda}^{\hat{y}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{FT}_{\mathbb{Z}^n} j_{\mathbb{Z}^n}^{\hat{y}} = \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T y + i x^T z} \quad (4.10)$$

From the Poisson summation formula (Lemma 13) and a subsequent change of variables, we get

$$\begin{aligned} j_{\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda}^{\hat{y}} &= \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}^n} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T y + i x^T z} \\ &= \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} s^T \Sigma^{-1} s + i s^T y} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T (y + s)} \end{aligned} \quad (4.11)$$

Because $\|y\| \leq \frac{p}{8}$ it follows from Lemma 19 that there exists

$$\Lambda^1 < \epsilon = \frac{q}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{3\epsilon}{1 - \epsilon}}$$

such that

$$j_{\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda}^{\hat{y}} \leq \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} s^T \Sigma^{-1} s + i s^T y} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T (y + s)} \quad (4.12)$$

Putting everything together, it follows from the triangle inequality that

$$\text{FT}_{\mathbb{Z}^n} j_{\mathbb{Z}^n}^{\hat{y}} - j_{\mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda}^{\hat{y}} \leq \sum_{s \in \mathbb{Z}^n / \Lambda} e^{-\frac{1}{2} s^T \Sigma^{-1} s + i s^T y} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n} e^{-\frac{1}{2} x^T \Sigma^{-1} x + i x^T (y + s)}$$

where $\Lambda^1 < \epsilon = \text{negl}^1 < \epsilon, \Lambda^1 < \epsilon$. Using that $\frac{p}{1 - \frac{1}{2} \frac{3\epsilon}{1 - \epsilon}} \leq p$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda^1 < \epsilon &= \text{negl}^1 < \epsilon, \Lambda^1 < \epsilon \\ &\leq \text{negl}^1 < \epsilon, 2^{\frac{3\epsilon}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have that $\Lambda^1 < \epsilon \leq \text{negl}^1 < \epsilon$. This proves the claim. \square

Algorithm 1: GenDual¹A-f⁰

Input: Matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and parameter $f = \frac{1}{p} < 0$.

Output: Gaussian state ρ_y and \mathbb{Z}_q^n

- 1 Prepare a Gaussian superposition in system with parameter $j = 0$:

$$\rho_{j=0} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n} \cdot |0\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n}$$

- 2 Apply the unitary $U_A : |x\rangle |0\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle |Ax\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n}$ on systems and :

$$\rho_{j=1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n} \cdot |Ax\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n}$$

- 3 Measure system in the computational basis, resulting in the state

$$\rho_{j=y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ Ax=y}} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n} \cdot |y\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n}$$

- 4 Output the state ρ_y in system and the outcome $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ in system .
-

Figure 4.2: Quantum algorithm which takes as input a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and a width parameter $f = \frac{1}{p} < 0$, and outputs the dual Gaussian state in Definition 28.

Then, there exists a negligible function ϵ such that

$$\| \rho_{LWE} - \rho_{U} \|_{\text{TV}} \leq \epsilon$$

In other words, the Pauli dephasing channel with respect to LWE distribution leaves the dual Gaussian state approximately invariant.

Proof. Let $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ be an arbitrary vector and recall that the dual Gaussian states given by

$$\rho_y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ Ax=y}} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n} \cdot |y\rangle_{\mathbb{Z}_q^n} \quad (4.13)$$

Algorithm 2: GenPrimal¹A–f⁰

Input: Matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ whose columns generate \mathbb{Z}_q^m and a parameter $f = \frac{1}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^0$.

Output: Gaussian state $|j_{k_y}\rangle$ and \mathbb{Z}_q^m

- 1 Run GenDual¹A–f⁰, resulting in the state

$$|j_{k_y}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (x^T A - f) \cdot y} |x\rangle$$

- 2 Apply the quantum Fourier transform FT_q to system \mathbb{Z}_q^m .
- 3 Output the state in system \mathbb{Z}_q^m , denoted by $|j_{k_y}\rangle$, and the outcome \mathbb{Z}_q^m in system \mathbb{Z}_q^m .

Figure 4.3: Quantum algorithm which takes as input a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ and a real parameter $f = \frac{1}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^0$, and outputs the primal Gaussian state in Definition 28.

Consider a sample $b = sA, e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ with $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ and $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$. Because \mathbb{Z}_q^m is a cyclic group, there exist negligible ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 such that

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{LWE}^{sA, e} |j_{k_y}\rangle &= FT_q(X_{\mathbb{Z}_q^m}^{sA, e}) FT_q |j_{k_y}\rangle && \text{Lemma 9} \\ &= FT_q(X_{\mathbb{Z}_q^m}^{sA, e} |j_{k_y}\rangle) && \text{Lemma 20} \\ &= \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (sA - f) \cdot y} |y\rangle && \text{Lemma 19} \\ &= \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (sA - f) \cdot y} |j_{k_y}\rangle && \text{Lemma 20} \end{aligned}$$

Here, $|j_{k_y}\rangle$ is the primal Gaussian state given by

$$|j_{k_y}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^m}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (x^T A - f) \cdot y} |x\rangle$$

In other words, $|j_{k_y}\rangle$ in Eq. (4.13) is an approximate eigenvector of the generalized Pauli operator $Z_{LWE}^{sA, e}$ with respect to the same matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$. Note that we can simply discard e because it serves as a global phase. Hence, there exists a negligible function ϵ such that

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{LWE}^{sA, e} |j_{k_y}\rangle &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (x^T A - f) \cdot y} |x\rangle \\ &= \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{i \frac{2\pi}{q} (x^T A - f) \cdot y} |x\rangle \\ &= |j_{k_y}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

□

4.3 Gaussian-Collapsing Hash Functions

Unruh [125] introduced the notion of collapsing hash functions in his seminal work on computationally binding quantum commitments. This property is captured by the following definition.

Definition 29 (Collapsing hash function, [125]) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. A hash function family $\mathcal{H} = \{f : \mathbb{G}_{2\lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_\lambda\}$ is called collapsing if, for every QPT adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$|\Pr[\text{CollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda} = 1] - \Pr[\text{CollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda} = 1]_{\text{class}}| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

Here, the experiment $\text{CollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda}$ is defined as follows:

1. The challenger samples a random hash function $f \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$, and sends a description of f to \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{A} responds with a (classical) string $x \in \mathbb{G}_{2\lambda}$ and an ℓ -qubit quantum state in system \mathcal{H} .
3. The challenger coherently computes $f(x)$ (into an auxiliary system) given the state in system \mathcal{H} , and then performs a two-outcome measurement indicating whether the output of f equals x . If $\text{meas} = 1$, the challenger aborts and outputs \perp .
4. If $\text{meas} = 0$, the challenger does nothing. Else, if $\text{meas} = 1$, the challenger measures the ℓ -qubit system \mathcal{H} in the computational basis. Finally, the challenger returns the system \mathcal{H} .
5. \mathcal{A} returns a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, which we define as the output of the experiment.

Motivated by the properties of the dual Gaussian state from [Definition 28](#), we consider a special class of hash functions which are collapsing with respect to Gaussian superpositions. Informally, we say that a hash function is Gaussian-collapsing if it is computationally difficult to distinguish between a Gaussian superposition of pre-images and a single (measured) Gaussian pre-image (of \mathbb{G}_λ). We formalize this below.

Definition 30 (Gaussian-collapsing hash function) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter, $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $q \in \{0, 1\}$ be a modulus. Let $\mathcal{H} = \{f : \mathbb{G}_{2\lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}_\lambda\}$ with domain $X = \mathbb{Z}_q^{2\lambda}$ and range $Y = \mathbb{Z}_q^\ell$ is called q -Gaussian-collapsing if, for every QPT adversary \mathcal{A} ,

$$|\Pr[\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda} = 1] - \Pr[\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda} = 1]_{\text{class}}| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

Here, the experiment $\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{\mathcal{H}, \mathcal{A}, \lambda}$ is defined as follows:

1. The challenger samples a random hash function $f \leftarrow \mathcal{H}$ and prepares the quantum state

$$|K\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q^{2\lambda}}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{2\lambda}} |x\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes |f(x)\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}.$$

2. The challenger measures system in the computational basis, resulting in the state

$$|k\rangle_{y_i} = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{x_i} |j\rangle_{y_i} \cdot$$

3. If $1 = 0$, the challenger does nothing. Else, if $1 = 1$, the challenger measures system of the quantum state $|k\rangle_{y_i}$ in the computational basis. Finally, the challenger sends the outcome state in systems to A , together with the string $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ and a classical description of the hash function.

4. A returns a bit 1^0 , which we define as the output of the experiment.

Ajtai's hash function

In this section, we give a simple and direct proof that the Ajtai hash function is Gaussian-collapsing assuming (decisional) LWE.

Theorem 8. Let $n = 2N$ and $q \geq 2$ be a prime with $k = \log q$ each parameterized by $2N$. Let f be a such that $\frac{q}{8} < |f| \leq \frac{q}{8}$. Then, the Ajtai hash function family $\mathcal{H} = f_{g, 2N}$ with

$$g = \{A : z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k \mid z \cdot A^T = s \cdot t \pmod{q}; A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times k}\}$$

is f -Gaussian-collapsing assuming the quantum hardness of the decisional LWE problem, for any parameter $\epsilon > 0$ with relative noise magnitude $\epsilon > 2^{-1/\epsilon}$.

Proof. Let A denote the QPT adversary in the experiment $\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{H, A, \epsilon}^{1^0}$ for some $1/2 \leq \epsilon < 1$. To prove the claim, we give a reduction from the decisional LWE assumption. We are given as input a sample (A, b^0) with $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times k}$, where $b^0 = A \cdot s^0$ is either a sample from the LWE distribution with $s^0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ and $\epsilon > 2^{-1/\epsilon}$ or where b^0 is a uniformly random string $s^0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$.

Consider the distinguisher D that acts as follows on input t and (A, b^0) :

1. D prepares a bipartite quantum state on systems x and y with

$$|k\rangle_{x_i} = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{x_i} |j\rangle_{y_i} \cdot$$

2. D measures system in the computational basis, resulting in the state

$$|k\rangle_{y_i} = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} r_f^{-1} x^0 |x\rangle_{x_i} |j\rangle_{y_i} \cdot$$

3. D applies the generalized Pauli operator $Z_{@}^b$ on system r , resulting in the state

$$Z_{@}^b |x\rangle_{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} \omega^{y \cdot x} Z_{@}^y |x\rangle_{r} \cdot$$

4. D runs the adversary A on input system r and classical descriptions of $Z_{@}^<$ and $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<$.

5. D outputs whatever bit f_0 the adversary A outputs.

Suppose that, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a polynomial p_n such that

$$|\Pr_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} [\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{H-A}^{-1}(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} [\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{H-A}^{-1}(x) = 1]_{\text{negl}}| \leq \frac{1}{p_n(n)}$$

We now show that this implies that D succeeds at the decision $\text{LWE}_{@,U}^<$ experiment with advantage at least $\frac{1}{p_n(n)} - \text{negl}_n$. We distinguish between the following two cases.

If (a, b) is a sample from the LWE distribution with $b = s \cdot A \pmod{q}$, then the adversary A receives as input the following quantum state in system

$$Z_{\text{LWE}_{@,U}^<}^1 |a\rangle_{r} |b\rangle_{s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} \omega^{z \cdot a} Z_{@}^{s \cdot A, z} |a\rangle_{r} |z\rangle_{s} \cdot$$

From [Theorem 7](#) it follows that there exists a negligible function ϵ_n such that

$$Z_{\text{LWE}_{@,U}^<}^1 |a\rangle_{r} |b\rangle_{s} \approx_{\epsilon_n} |a\rangle_{r} |b\rangle_{s} \cdot$$

In other words, A receives as input a state in system r which is within negligible trace distance of the dual Gaussian state $|a\rangle_{r}$, which corresponds precisely to the input $\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{H-A}^{-1}(a)$.

If (a, b) is a uniformly random sample, where a is a random string $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<$, then the adversary A receives as input the following quantum state in system

$$Z^1 |a\rangle_{r} |b\rangle_{s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{u \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} Z_{@}^u |a\rangle_{r} |u\rangle_{s} \cdot$$

Because Z corresponds to the uniform Pauli dephasing channel, it follows from [Lemma 7](#) that

$$Z^1 |a\rangle_{r} |b\rangle_{s} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{@}^<} |x\rangle_{r} \langle x| \otimes |b\rangle_{s} \cdot$$

In other words, A receives as input a mixed state which is the result of a computational basis measurement of the Gaussian state $|a\rangle_{r}$. Note that this corresponds precisely to the input in $\text{GaussCollapseExp}_{H-A}^{-1}(a)$.

By assumption, A succeeds with advantage at least $\frac{1}{p_n(n)}$. Therefore, the distinguisher D succeeds at the decision $\text{LWE}_{@,U}^<$ experiment with probability at least $\frac{1}{p_n(n)} - \text{negl}_n$. \square

Theorem 9. Let $n = 2^N$ and $p \geq 2$ be a prime modulus with $\log p \leq \log n$ each parameterized by $n = 2^N$. Let f be a function such that $\frac{1}{p} \leq f \leq \frac{1}{2}$ and let $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ be a matrix. Then, the following states are computationally indistinguishable assuming the quantum hardness of decisional LWE for any parameter $n \geq 10^{10}$ with relative noise magnitude $\sigma \geq 1$:

For any $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ $\text{GenDual}(A, f)$ in Algorithm 1:

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} r_f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |x\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |z\rangle$$

For any $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ $\text{GenPrimal}(A, f)$ in Algorithm 2:

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} r_f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |x\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |z\rangle$$

Moreover, the distribution of \mathbb{Z}_p^n is negligibly close to the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_p^n . Here, $\mathbb{Z}_p^n = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n : Ax = y \pmod p\}$ denotes the lattice coset of \mathbb{Z}_p^n .

Proof. Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{n \times n}$ be a random matrix. From Lemma 8 it follows that the columns of A generate \mathbb{Z}_p^n with overwhelming probability. Let us also recall the following simple facts about the discrete Gaussian. According to Lemma 9, the distribution of the syndrome $Ax = y \pmod p$ is statistically close to the uniform distribution over \mathbb{Z}_p^n whenever $\sigma \geq \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$ and $f = \frac{1}{\sqrt{p \log p}}$. Moreover, the conditional distribution of \mathbb{Z}_p^n given the syndrome $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ is a discrete Gaussian distribution \mathbb{Z}_p^n .

Let us now show the first statement. Recall that in Theorem 8 we show that the Ajtai hash function $Ax = y \pmod p$ is f -Gaussian-collapsing assuming the decisional LWE assumption and a noise ratio $\sigma \geq 1$. Therefore, for $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n$ the (normalized variant of the) dual Gaussian state,

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} r_f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |x\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |z\rangle$$

is computationally indistinguishable from the (normalized) classical mixture,

$$\frac{1}{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} |k_y\rangle \langle k_y| = \frac{1}{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|} \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} r_f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |x\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x, z \rangle \cdot |z\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_p^n|}} \sum_{x' \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} r_f \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z' \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x', z' \rangle \cdot |x'\rangle \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{z' \in \mathbb{Z}_p^n} \langle x', z' \rangle \cdot |z'\rangle$$

which is the result of a computational basis measurement of $|k\rangle$. Since $\frac{p}{8} < |f| < \frac{p}{8}$, Lemma 12 implies that the above mixture is statistically close to the discrete Gaussian $\mathcal{G}_{A, \frac{f}{2}}$.

The second statement follows immediately by applying the (inverse) Fourier transform to both of the states above. Note that in Lemma 20 we showed that the primal Gaussian state

$$|k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2Z_{\mathbb{Z}}}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} r_x^{-1} e^{i \frac{h \cdot x y}{p}} |x\rangle_{A, e^i}$$

is within negligible trace distance ϵ of $|k\rangle$. This proves the claim. □

Strong Gaussian-collapsing property of the Ajtai hash function

In this section, we show our main technical result of this chapter. Specifically, we show that Ajtai's hash function satisfies a particular strong Gaussian-collapsing property, namely, once an adversary A produces a valid short certificate with the property that $A \cdot c = y^{-1} \pmod{p}$, then A cannot tell whether the input at the beginning of the experiment it received a Gaussian superposition of pre-images or a single (measured) pre-image, even if now allowed to run in unbounded time.

Theorem 10 (Strong (everlasting) Gaussian collapsing property of the Ajtai hash) Let $p = 2N$ and ℓ be a prime modulus with $\ell = 2^{\ell-1} + 1$ and $\ell < 2 \log p$ each parameterized by the security parameter $\lambda \geq 2N$. Let f be a such that $\frac{p}{8} < |f| < \frac{p}{8}$ and let $U \geq 10^{-10}$ be a noise ratio such that $1 \cdot U = 2^{\ell-1} \cdot f$. Let $H = f \cdot \mathcal{G}_{2N}$ be the Ajtai hash function family with

$$H = \{A : \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\ell} \text{ s.t. } A^{-1}x^0 = A^{-1}x^1 \pmod{\ell}; A \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\ell \times \ell}\}$$

Then, assuming the hardness of $\text{LWE}_{\ell, \ell}^{\ell}$ and $\text{SIS}_{\ell, \ell}^{\ell}$, it holds for any pair of adversaries $A = (A_0, A_1)$ consisting of a QPT algorithm A_0 and an unbounded algorithm A_1 :

$$\Pr[\text{StrongGaussCollapseExp}_{H, A, \ell}^{-10^0}] = 1 \pm \frac{1}{4} \Pr[\text{StrongGaussCollapseExp}_{H, A, \ell}^{-11^0}] = 1 \pm \text{negl}^1_{\lambda}$$

Here, the experiment $\text{StrongGaussCollapseExp}_{H, A, \ell}^{-11^0}$ is defined as follows:

1. The challenger first chooses a random hash function A by sampling $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\ell \times \ell}$ and then generates a Gaussian superposition state $|k\rangle \in \mathcal{G}_{A^{-1}f^0}$, with

$$|k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2Z_{\mathbb{Z}}}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell} \\ Ax=y}} r_x^{-1} |x\rangle$$

³Here, the additional factor $\frac{1}{2}$ arises from the normalization of the dual Gaussian state.

2. If $b = 0$, the challenger does nothing. Else, if $b = 1$, the challenger measures the state in the computational basis. Next, the challenger sends the resulting state together with A_0 .
3. A_0 sends a classical certificate $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ to the challenger and initializes A_1 with its residual (internal) state.
4. The challenger checks if $As = y \pmod{q}$ and $\|z\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$. If true, A_1 is run until it outputs a bit b . Otherwise, $b \in \{0, 1\}$ is sampled uniformly at random. The output of the experiment is b .

Proof. Let $A = (A_0, A_1)$ be an adversary consisting of a PPT algorithm A_0 and an unbounded algorithm A_1 . To prove the statement, we consider the following hybrids.

Hyb₀¹¹⁰: This is the original experiment $\text{StrongGaussCollapseExp}_{H, A, \rho}^{110}$:

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{k \times n}$ and then generates a Gaussian superposition state $|k, y\rangle_{Ax=y} \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}^1(A, f^0)$, with

$$|k, y\rangle_{Ax=y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^k}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} r_f \cdot x^0 |x\rangle \cdot$$

2. If $b = 0$, the challenger does nothing. Else, if $b = 1$, the challenger measures the state in the computational basis. Next, the challenger sends the resulting state together with A and y to the adversary A_0 .
3. A_0 sends a classical certificate $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ to the challenger and initializes A_1 with its residual (internal) state.
4. The challenger checks if $As = y \pmod{q}$ and $\|z\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$. If true, A_1 is run until it outputs a bit b . Otherwise, $b \in \{0, 1\}$ is sampled uniformly at random. The output of the experiment is b .

Hyb₁¹¹⁰: This is the following experiment.

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{k \times n}$ and then generates a Gaussian superposition state $|k, y\rangle_{Ax=y} \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}^1(A, f^0)$, with

$$|k, y\rangle_{Ax=y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^k}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} r_f \cdot x^0 |x\rangle \cdot$$

- The challenger samples a random string $z \in \{0,1\}^g$, prepares $|z\rangle$ state in system and applies a controlled Z_z operation, resulting in the state

$$|k_y^z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^g} |j\rangle \cdot Z_z^{2z} |k_y\rangle.$$

and sends system together with $A-y$ to the adversary A_0 .

- A_0 replies with a certificate c , and initializes A_1 with its residual (internal) state.
- The challenger checks if satisfies $A_0 = y^{-1} \text{mod } \mathcal{G}$ and $\|k\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$. Then, the challenger measures system to obtain $z \in \{0,1\}^g$ and checks that $z^0 = 1$. If both checks are true A_1 is run until it outputs a bit b^0 . Otherwise, $b^0 \in \{0,1\}^g$ is sampled uniformly at random. The output of the experiment is b^0 .

Hyb₂¹¹⁰: This is the following experiment.

- The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{g \times g}$ and then generates a Gaussian superposition state $|k_y\rangle \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}^1(A-f^0)$, with

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f-1g}}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^g} r_x \cdot |x\rangle \cdot \mathbb{1}_{Ax=y}$$

- The challenger samples a random string $z \in \{0,1\}^g$, prepares $|z\rangle$ state in system and applies a controlled Z_z operation, resulting in the state

$$|k_y^z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^g} |j\rangle \cdot Z_z^{2z} |k_y\rangle.$$

and sends system together with $A-y$ to the adversary A_0 .

- A_0 replies with a certificate c , and initializes A_1 with its residual (internal) state.
- The challenger checks if satisfies $A_0 = y^{-1} \text{mod } \mathcal{G}$ and $\|k\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$. Then, the challenger applies the projective measurement

$$\sum_{i \in \{0,1\}^g} |k_c^z\rangle \langle k_c^z| \otimes |i\rangle \langle i| \quad \text{with} \quad |k_c^z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \{0,1\}^g} |j\rangle \cdot \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{G}(j)=c}$$

and checks that the first outcome is observed. Finally, the challenger measures system to obtain $z \in \{0,1\}^g$ and checks that $z^0 = 1$. If all three checks are true A_1 is run until it outputs a bit b^0 . Otherwise, $b^0 \in \{0,1\}^g$ is sampled uniformly at random. The output of the experiment is b^0 .

Finally, we also use the following hybrid which is convenient for the sake of the proof.

Hyb₂⁰¹¹⁰: This is the following experiment.

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n}$ and Gaussian vector $x_0 \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ and lets $y = Ax_0 \pmod{\mathbb{C}}$.
2. The challenger samples a random string $z \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$, prepares $|z\rangle$ state in system \mathcal{H}_A and applies a controlled Z^z operation, resulting in the state

$$|k\rangle_{y_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f_0-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{F}_2^{2f_0-1g}} |j\rangle_{z_i} |Z^{2z} j x_{0i}\rangle.$$

and sends system together with $A^{-1}y$ to the adversary A_0 .

3. A_0 replies with a certificate c , and initializes A_1 with its residual (internal) state.
4. The challenger checks if $satisfies A_0 = y^{-1} \pmod{\mathbb{C}}$ and $\|k\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$. Then, the challenger applies the projective measurement

$$\sum_{j \in \mathbb{F}_2^{2f_0-1g}} |k_c^z\rangle_{i_h} \langle k_c^z|_{j-1} \quad \text{with} \quad |k_c^z\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f_0-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{F}_2^{2f_0-1g}} |j\rangle_{z_i} |c - z_j\rangle_{j_1}$$

and checks that the first outcome is observed. Finally, the challenger measures system to obtain $z \in \mathbb{F}_2^{2f_0-1g}$ and checks that $z^0 = 1$. If all three checks are true, A_1 is run until it outputs a bit 1^0 . Otherwise, $1^0 \in \mathbb{F}_2$ is sampled uniformly at random. The output of the experiment is 1^0 .

Before we analyze the probability of distinguishing between the consecutive hybrids, we first show that the following statements hold for the final experiment Hyb_2^0 :

Claim 1. The following statement holds assuming the quantum hardness of the $\text{SIS}_{\mathbb{F}_2}^{\leq p}$ problem: With overwhelming probability, the certificate returned by the adversary in Step 3 of Hyb_3 is identical to the pre-image x_0 produced by the challenger. In other words,

$$\Pr_{\substack{A_0 = y^{-1} \pmod{\mathbb{C}} \text{ s.t. } \|k\| \leq \frac{p}{2} \\ c < x_0}} \left[\begin{array}{l} x_0 \in \mathbb{F}_2^n \\ y = Ax_0 \pmod{\mathbb{C}} \\ c = A^{-1}y - jx_{0i} \end{array} \right] = \text{negl}^{\epsilon_0}$$

where $|jx_{0i}\rangle_{\mathcal{H}_A}$ in system \mathcal{H}_A is the reduced state with respect to the bipartite state

$$|k\rangle_{y_i} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^{2f_0-1g}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{F}_2^{2f_0-1g}} |j\rangle_{z_i} |c - z_j\rangle_{j_1} \cdot$$

Proof. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the probability is at least ϵ_0 . We show that we can use A_0 to break $\text{SIS}_{\mathbb{F}_2}^{\leq p}$. On input $A \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n \times n}$, our reduction proceeds as follows:

1. Sample $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{p/2}^k$ and let $y = Ax_0 \pmod p$.
2. Run A_0 on input (A, y, x_0) to obtain a vector $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{p/2}^k$.
3. Output the vector $x_0 - c \in \mathbb{Z}_{p/2}^k$.

By assumption A_0 outputs a valid certificate $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{p/2}^k$ with $\|c\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$ such that $A_0 c = y \pmod p$ with probability at least $\epsilon \cdot \text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$. Because $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_{p/2}^k$ is sampled from the truncated discrete Gaussian, we have $\|x_0\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$, and thus it holds that

$$A_0(x_0 - c) = 0 \pmod p \quad \text{with} \quad \|x_0 - c\| \leq \frac{p}{2}.$$

Hence, our reduction succeeds at breaking $\text{SIS}_{p/2}^k$ with probability at least $\epsilon \cdot \text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$. \square

Claim 2. The probability that the challenger accepts the certificate in Step 4 of $\text{Hyb}_2^{1,0}$ and the subsequent projective measurement on system C fails (returns the second outcome) is negligible.

Proof. This follows directly from Claim 1, which implies that except with negligible probability, the register C is in the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_0\rangle + |j_1\rangle)$$

at the time the challenger applies the projective measurement. \square

For any experiment $\text{Hyb}_8^{1,0}$, we define the advantage

$$\text{Adv}^1_{\text{Hyb}_8^{1,0}} = \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\text{Hyb}_8^{1,0} = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\text{Hyb}_8^{1,0} = 0].$$

Claim 3.

$$\text{Adv}^1_{\text{Hyb}_2^{1,0}} = 0.$$

Proof. We now consider the following case analysis. First, note that in the case that the challenger rejects because either the certificate is invalid or their projection fails, the experiment does not involve 1 , and thus the advantage of the adversary is 0. Second, in the case that the challenger's projection succeeds, the registers are either in the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_0\rangle + |j_1\rangle) \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j_0\rangle - |j_1\rangle)$$

for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}_2$, and thereby completely unentangled from the rest of the system. Notice that the challenger's measurement of system C with outcome 2^0 results in a uniformly random bit, which completely masks j . Therefore, the experiment is also independent of this case, and thus the adversary's overall advantage in $\text{Hyb}_2^{1,0}$ is 0. \square

Next, we invoke the Gaussian-collapsing property from Theorem 8 to argue the following.

Claim 4.

$$|\text{Adv}^1 \text{Exp}_2^0 - \text{Adv}^1 \text{Exp}_1^0| \leq \text{negl}^1(\epsilon).$$

Proof. Recall that Claim 2 shows that the projective measurement performed by the challenger in Step 4 of Hyb_2^0 succeeds with overwhelming probability. We now argue that the same is also true in Hyb_2 . Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there is a non-negligible difference between the success probabilities of the measurement. We now show that this implies the existence of an efficient distinguisher A^0 that breaks the Gaussian-collapsing property of the Ajtai hash function family $H = \{f_{g,2^N}\}$ which we showed in Theorem 8. Our reduction proceeds as follows:

A^0 receives A^{-y^0} and a state on register from its challenger. Next, it samples a random string $l \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\leq}$, prepares a state in system \mathcal{H} , applies a controlled Z^l operation from \mathcal{H} to \mathcal{H} . Then, it runs A_0 on A^{-y^0} , which outputs a certificate. Finally, A^0 applies the following projective measurement to system

$$\sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\leq}} |j\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \langle j|_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes |j\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \langle j|_{\mathcal{H}} \quad \text{with} \quad |j\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|j\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} + |j+1\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}).$$

and outputs 1 if the measurement succeeds and 0 otherwise. If there is a non-negligible difference in success probabilities of this measurement between Hyb_2^0 and Hyb_2 (for any $\epsilon > 0$), then A^0 breaks the Gaussian-collapsing property of the Ajtai hash function.

Now, recall that Hyb_2 is identical to Hyb_1 , except that the challenger applies an additional measurement in Step 4. Because the measurement succeeds with overwhelming probability, it follows from the Almost As Good As New Lemma (Lemma 1) that the advantage of the adversary must remain the same up to a negligible amount. This proves the claim. \square

Claim 5.

$$\text{Adv}^1 \text{Hyb}_1^0 = \text{Adv}^1 \text{Hyb}_0^0 \cdot 2.$$

Proof. First note that in Hyb_1^0 , we can imagine measuring register to obtain z^0 and aborting if $z^0 < 1$ before the challenger sends any information to the adversary. This follows because register is disjoint from the adversary's registers. Next, by the Pauli-Z twirl property in Lemma 7, we have the following guarantees about the state on system given to the adversary in Hyb_1^0 .

$\hat{\bullet}$ In the case $z^0 = 1 = 0$, the reduced state on register is $|j\rangle_{\mathcal{H}}$.

$\hat{\bullet}$ In the case that $z^0 = 1 = 1$, the reduced state on register is a mixture over $\sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_m^{\leq}} |y\rangle_{\mathcal{H}} \langle y|_{\mathcal{H}}$ with $y = A^{-x_0} \pmod{m}$, where x_0 results from measuring in the computational basis.

Thus, this experiment is identical to $\text{Hyb}_0^{1,0}$, except that we decide to abort and output a uniformly random bit 1^0 with probability $1/2$ at the beginning of the experiment. \square

Putting everything together, we have that $\text{Adv}^1 \text{Hyb}_0^0 = \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$, which completes the proof. \square

4.4 Public-Key Encryption with Publicly-Verifiable Deletion

In this section, we formalize the cryptographic notion of public-key encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion (PVD). Let us first introduce some relevant definitions.

Definition

We consider public-key encryption schemes with certified deletion for which verification of a deletion certificate is public, meaning anyone with access to the verification key can verify that deletion has taken place. The syntax is as follows.

Definition 31 (Public-key encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion) A public-key encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion $\text{PKE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ with plaintext space \mathcal{M} consists of the following tuple of PT algorithms:

$\text{KeyGen}^{1,0} : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^* \times \{0,1\}^*$: takes as input 1 and outputs a public key pk and secret key sk .

$\text{Enc}^{pk, \epsilon} : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{CT}$: takes as input the public key pk and a plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and outputs a classical (public) verification key vk together with a quantum ciphertext CT .

$\text{Dec}^{sk, CT} : \mathcal{CT} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \cup \{?\}$: takes as input the key sk and ciphertext CT , and outputs $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or $?$.

$\text{Del}^{CT} : \mathcal{CT} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$: takes as input a ciphertext CT and outputs a classical certificate c .

$\text{Vrfy}^{vk, c} : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^* \cup \{?\}$: takes as input the key vk and certificate c , and outputs $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or $?$.

Definition 32 (Correctness of PKE_{PVD}). We require two separate kinds of correctness properties, one for decryption and one for verification.

(Decryption correctness:) For any $2 N$, and for any $\epsilon < 2^{-N}$:

$$\Pr_{\substack{pk, sk \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1,0} \\ CT \leftarrow \text{Enc}^{pk, \epsilon}}} [\text{Dec}^{sk, CT} \neq m] < \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}.$$

(Verification correctness:) For any $2 N$, and for any $\epsilon < 2^{-N}$:

$$\Pr_{\substack{pk, sk \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1,0} \\ vk, CT \leftarrow \text{Enc}^{pk, \epsilon} \\ c \leftarrow \text{Del}^{CT}}} [\text{Vrfy}^{vk, c} \neq m] < \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}.$$

(Everlasting) certified deletion security

In terms of security, we adopt the following definition introduced in [23, 24].

Definition 33 ((Everlasting certified deletion security)) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter and let $\mathcal{PKE} = \langle \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy} \rangle$ be a PKE_{PVD} scheme. Let $\mathcal{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1 \rangle$ be an adversary. We define the security experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \lambda}^{\text{EV-CD}}$ between \mathcal{A} and a challenger as follows:

1. The challenger generates a pair $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda)$, and sends pk to \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{A} sends a plaintext pair $(m_0, m_1) \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M}$ to the challenger.
3. The challenger computes $ct_1 \leftarrow \text{Enc}(pk, m_1)$, and sends ct_1 to \mathcal{A} .
4. At some point in time, \mathcal{A} sends the certificate to the challenger, and initializes the algorithm \mathcal{A}_1 with its internal state.
5. The challenger computes $sk \leftarrow \text{Del}(sk)$. If the output is \perp , \mathcal{A}_1 is run until it outputs m_1 which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts and \mathcal{A} loses.

We say that the scheme is EV-CD-secure if, for any adversary $\mathcal{A} = \langle \mathcal{A}_0, \mathcal{A}_1 \rangle$ consisting of a QPT algorithm \mathcal{A}_0 and a computationally unbounded algorithm \mathcal{A}_1 , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}, \lambda}^{\text{EV-CD}} := |\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \lambda}^{\text{EV-CD}} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}, \lambda}^{\text{EV-CD}} = 1/2]| \leq \text{negl}(1/\lambda).$$

4.5 Dual-Regev Public-Key Encryption with Publicly-Verifiable Deletion

In this section, we consider the Dual-Regev PKE scheme due to Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan [68]. Unlike Regev's original PKE scheme in [112], the Dual-Regev PKE scheme has the useful property that the ciphertext takes the form of a regular sample from the distribution together with an additive shift which depends on the plaintext.

Construction

Parameters. Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. We choose the following set of parameters for our Dual-Regev PKE scheme with certified deletion (each parameterized by

λ an integer $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$.

λ a prime modulus $q \geq 2$.

λ an integer $k = 2 \log q$

λ a noise ratio $\rho \in (0, 1)$ such that $\frac{\rho}{8^k} < \frac{1}{q}$ and $\frac{1}{\rho} < \frac{q}{8^k}$.

Construction 5 (Dual-RegenPKE with Publicly-Verifiable Deletion) Let $\ell \geq 2, N$. The Dual-RegenPKE scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ with PVD is defined as follows:

KeyGen $^{1-\epsilon} : \mathbb{1} \rightarrow \text{pk}-\text{sk}^0$: sample $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}$ and a vector $x \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ and choose $\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} A_i x_i \pmod{\ell}$. Output $(\text{pk}-\text{sk}^0)$, where $\text{pk} = A \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}$ and $\text{sk} = x \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$.

Enc $^{\text{pk}-\mathbb{G}} : \mathbb{1} \rightarrow \text{vk}-\text{jCTi}^0$: parse $A \in \text{pk}$ and run $(j, k_{yi}) \leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}(A, \mathbb{1}, U)$ in [Algorithm 2](#), where $j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}$. To encrypt a single bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, output the pair

$$(\text{vk} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0 - \text{jCTi}) = X_{\ell}^{10 \dots 0 - 1 b \frac{\ell}{2} c^0} |k_{yi}\rangle$$

where vk is the public verification key and jCTi is an ℓ -qudit quantum ciphertext.

Dec $^{\text{sk}-\text{jCTi}^0} : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$: to decrypt, measure the ciphertext jCTi in the computational basis with outcome $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$. Compute $\langle c | \text{sk} \rangle \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$ and output 0, if it is closer to 0 than to $\frac{\ell}{2} c$, and output 1, otherwise.

Del $^{\text{jCTi}^0} : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$: Measure jCTi in the Fourier basis and output the outcome $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$.

Vrfy $^{\text{vk}-\mathbb{G}} : \{0, 1\} \rightarrow \{?, \perp\}$: to verify a deletion certificate $c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$, parse $(A, y) \leftarrow \text{vk}$ and output \perp , if $A \cdot c = y \pmod{\ell}$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0$, $\frac{\ell}{2} c$, and output $?$, otherwise.

Proof of correctness. Let us now establish the correctness of decryption and verification of the scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$ in [Construction 5](#).

Lemma 21 (Correctness of decryption) Let $\ell \geq 2, N$ and ℓ be a prime with $\ell \geq 2 = \log \ell$ each parameterized by $\ell \geq 2, N$. Let U be a ratio with $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{\ell}{8 \ell^{\ell}}$. Then, for $\ell \in \{0, 1\}$, the scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ in [Construction 5](#) satisfies:

$$\Pr_{(\text{pk}-\text{sk}^0, \text{vk}-\text{jCTi}^0) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon}, \text{Enc}^{\text{pk}-\mathbb{G}}} [\text{Dec}^{\text{sk}-\text{jCTi}^0} = 1] = 1 - \text{negl}^{1-\epsilon}$$

Proof. By the Leftover Hash Lemma ([Lemma 4](#)), the distribution $\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} A_i x_i \pmod{\ell}$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution \mathbb{Z}_{ℓ}^0 . Moreover, from [Lemma 8](#) it follows that the columns of A generate $\mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\times}$ with overwhelming probability. Since the noise ratio $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{\ell}{8 \ell^{\ell}}$, it then follows from [Corollary 2](#) that the ciphertext jCTi is within negligible trace distance of the state

$$\sum_{c \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^0} \frac{1}{\ell} |e^{i \frac{2\pi}{\ell} c} \rangle \langle e^{i \frac{2\pi}{\ell} c} |$$

A measurement in computational basis yields an outcome such that

$$c^j = s^j A_j + e^j, \quad e^j = \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i} c^{j-1} + z_{2^i}^j$$

where $s^j \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and where $e^j = \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i} z_{2^i}^j$ is a sample from the (truncated) discrete Gaussian such that $\|e^j\| \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i}$. Since $\text{Dec}^{sk-jCTi}$ computes $\langle s^j, c^j \rangle \pmod{2}$ and outputs 0, if it is closer to 0 than to $\frac{1}{2}$ over \mathbb{Z}_2 , and 1 otherwise, it succeeds with overwhelming probability. □

Let us now prove the following property.

Lemma 22 (Correctness of verification) Let $q = 2^N$ and $p \geq 2$ be prime with $\log q = 2N$ each parameterized by 2^N . Let U be a ratio with $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{p}{8^{1/2}}$. Then, for $1 \leq t \leq 1/g$, the scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ in [Construction 5](#) satisfies:

$$\Pr[\text{Verify}^{vk}(\text{Del}^{jCTi}(\text{Enc}^{pk}(\text{KeyGen}^{1-0}(c))))] \geq 1 - \text{negl}^{1-0}$$

Proof. By the Leftover Hash Lemma ([Lemma 4](#)), the distribution $\{A_j A^{-1} x \pmod{q}\}_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^N}$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution \mathbb{Z}_q^N . From [Lemma 8](#) it follows that the columns of A generate \mathbb{Z}_q^N with overwhelming probability. Since $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{p}{8^{1/2}}$ is a ratio parameter with $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{p}{8^{1/2}}$, [Corollary 2](#) implies that the Fourier transform of the ciphertext $jCTi$ is within negligible trace distance of the dual state

$$jCTi = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^N: Ax=y \pmod{q}} \tilde{O} \left(\prod_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i}^{-1} z_{2^i}^{jCTi} \right) \cdot \text{Tr}(\tilde{O} \cdot \prod_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i}^{-1} z_{2^i}^{jCTi})$$

From [Lemma 12](#), it follows that the distribution of computational basis measurement outcomes is within negligible total variation distance of $\frac{1}{2^N} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^N} \prod_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i}^{-1} z_{2^i}^{jCTi}$ with $\|e^j\| \leq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=0}^{l-1} b_{2^i}$. □

Proof of security

Let us now prove the everlasting certified deletion security of our Dual-REVE scheme with PVD in [Construction 5](#).

IND-CPA security of $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$. We first prove that our public-key encryption scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$ in [Construction 5](#) satisfies the notion of IND-CPA security according to [Definition 11](#). The proof follows from [Theorem 9](#) and assumes the hardness of (decisional) [Definition 14](#). We add it for completeness.

Theorem 11. Let $n = 2N$ and $q = 2$ be prime with $\chi = 2 = \log q$ each parameterized by $2N$. Let $\epsilon \in (0, 1)$ be a noise ratio parameter with $\frac{1}{8} < \epsilon < 1$ and $\frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{8^{1-\epsilon}}$. Then, the scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$ in [Construction 5](#) is IND-CPA-secure assuming the quantum hardness of the decisional $\text{LWE}_{\epsilon, 1}^{<, 1}$ problem, for any $V \in (0, 1)$ with $U \cdot V = 2^{\epsilon-1}$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{E} = \text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$. We need to show that, for any QPT adversary \mathcal{A} , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{IND-CPA}} := |\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}, 1, 0} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}, 1, 1} = 1]| \leq \text{negl}^{\epsilon-1}.$$

Consider the experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}, 1, 0}$ between \mathcal{A} and a challenger taking place as follows:

1. The challenger generates a public-private key pair $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1, 1-0}$, and sends pk to \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{A} sends a distinct plaintext pair $(m_0, m_1) \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to the challenger.
3. The challenger computes $(c_0, c_1) \leftarrow \text{Enc}^{1, pk}(m_0, m_1)$, and sends (c_0, c_1) to \mathcal{A} .
4. \mathcal{A} outputs a guess $\hat{m} \in \{0, 1\}^n$, which is also the output of the experiment.

Recall that $\text{Enc}^{1, pk}(m_0, m_1)$ outputs a pair $(c_0, c_1) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{2n}$, where v_k is the verification key and where the ciphertext c_i is within negligible trace distance of

$$\tilde{c}_i = \sum_{j \in [n]} e^{i \cdot h_{s_{y_i}}(j)} \cdot (m_j + e_j) \cdot v_{k_i} \pmod{q}. \quad (4.14)$$

Let $V \in (0, 1)$ be such that $U \cdot V = 2^{\epsilon-1}$. From [Theorem 9](#) it follows that, under the $\text{LWE}_{\epsilon, 1}^{<, 1}$ assumption, the quantum ciphertext (c_0, c_1) is computationally indistinguishable from the state

$$\tilde{c}_i = \sum_{j \in [n]} |e^{i \cdot h_{s_{y_i}}(j)} \cdot (m_j + e_j) \cdot v_{k_i}\rangle \otimes |0\rangle^{\otimes n}. \quad (4.15)$$

Because the state in Eq. (4.17) is completely independent of m , it follows that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{IND-CPA}} := |\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}, 1, 0} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}, 1, 1} = 1]| \leq \text{negl}^{\epsilon-1}.$$

This proves the claim. □

EV-CD security of $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$. In this section, we prove that our public-key encryption scheme $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$ in [Construction 5](#) satisfies the notion of everlasting certified deletion security, assuming the quantum hardness of LWE and SIS. Our proof makes use of the strengthening of the Gaussian-collapsing property which we proved in [Theorem 10](#).

Theorem 12. Let $n = 2N$ and $q = 2$ be a prime with $\kappa = 2 \log q$ each parameterized by $2N$. Let U be a ratio with $\frac{1}{8} < U < 1$. Then, $\text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}}$ in Construction 5 is EV-CD-secure assuming the hardness of $\text{LWE}_{n, \kappa, U}^{<, 1}$ and $\text{SIS}_{n, \kappa, U}^{<, 1}$, for any $V \geq 10^{-10}$ with $U \cdot V = 2^{\geq 1-0}$.

Proof. Let $\text{Exp} = \text{DualPKE}_{\text{PVD}} = \text{KeyGen} - \text{Enc} - \text{Dec} - \text{Del} - \text{Vrfy}^0$. We need to show that, for any $A = \text{A}_0 - \text{A}_1^0$ consisting of a QPT algorithm A_0 and an unbounded algorithm A_1 , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{A, \text{Exp}}^{1-0} := \left| \Pr_{\text{EvExp}}^{A, \text{Exp}} = 1 \right| - \left| \Pr_{\text{EvExp}}^{A, \text{Exp}} = 1 \right| = \text{negl}^{1-0}.$$

Without loss of generality, it suffices to show that the scheme $\hat{\text{Exp}} = \text{KeyGen} - \hat{\text{Enc}} - \text{Dec} - \text{Del} - \text{Vrfy}^0$ is EV-CD-secure. Here $\hat{\text{Enc}}$ is the same as Enc , except that it additionally applies the Fourier transform to the ciphertext which is output by Enc . We consider the following sequence of hybrids:

H_0 : This is the experiment $\text{EvExp}_{A, \text{Exp}}^{1-0}$ between A and a challenger:

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}$ and a vector $f \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and chooses $s = \text{A} \cdot j \cdot x^{-1} \pmod{q}$. Then, the challenger assigns $s^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times 1}$ as the secret key and $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}$ as the public key.
2. A_0 sends a distinct plaintext pair $(k_0, c_0) \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^n$ to the challenger. (Note: Without loss of generality, we can just assume that $k_0 = 0$ and $c_0 = 1$).
3. The challenger runs $(j, k, y) \leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^1(A, U)$ in Algorithm 2, and outputs

$$vk = (A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}, y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}) \leftarrow \text{JCT}_0 \circ \text{FT}_{@}(j, k, y).$$

4. At some point in time A_0 returns a certificate c to the challenger, and initializes A_1 with its internal state.
5. The challenger verifies and outputs \succ , if $A \cdot c = y \pmod{q}$ and $k \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$. If the output is \succ , A_1 is run until it outputs 1^0 which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts A and Exp .

H_1 : This is same experiment as H_0 , except that (in Step 3) the challenger also measures the ciphertext $j \cdot CT_0$ in the computational basis before it is sent to A_0 .

H_2 : This is the experiment $\text{EvExp}_{A, \text{Exp}}^{11-0}$ between A and a challenger:

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}$ and a vector $f \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$ and chooses $s = \text{A} \cdot j \cdot x^{-1} \pmod{q}$. Then, the challenger assigns $s^{-1} \cdot x^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times 1}$ as the secret key and $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa \times n}$ as the public key.

2. A_0 sends a distinct plaintext $pk_0 \leftarrow \mathcal{K}_0$ to the challenger. (Note: Without loss of generality, we can just assume $pk_0 = 0$ and $\kappa_1 = 1$).
3. The challenger runs $(k, y) \leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^1(A, 1, U)$ in [Algorithm 2](#), and outputs (k, y) .
4. At some point in time A_0 returns a certificate c to the challenger, and initializes A_1 with its internal state.
5. The challenger verifies c and outputs succ if $A(c) = y^{-1} \pmod{p}$ and $k \in \mathcal{K}_0$. If the output is succ , A_1 is run until it outputs pk_1 which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts Ados .

We now show that the hybrids are indistinguishable.

Claim 6.

$$|\Pr[\text{EvExp}^{\wedge}_{A, \kappa_0} = 1] - \Pr[\text{H}_1 = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(\kappa_0).$$

Proof. By the Leftover Hash Lemma ([Lemma 4](#)), the distribution $\{A(x) \pmod{p}\}_{x \in \mathcal{Z}_p}$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution $\mathcal{U}_{\mathcal{Z}_p}$. From [Lemma 8](#) it follows that the columns of A generate \mathcal{Z}_p with overwhelming probability. Since $2^{-\kappa_0}$ is a ratio parameter with $\frac{p}{8^{\kappa_0}} \leq \frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{p}{8^{\kappa_0}}$, [Corollary 2](#) implies that the Fourier transform of $\text{FT}_{@}(k, y)$ with $(k, y) \leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^1(A, 1, U)$ is within negligible trace distance of the dual state

$$|k\rangle_{y_i} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{Z}_p} \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \chi(x) |x\rangle_{i} \quad \text{for } Ax = y^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

Therefore, the claim follows immediately from the (everlasting) strong Gaussian-collapsing property in [Theorem 10](#), which implies that the measurement in the computational basis is undetectable.

Next, we show the following.

Claim 7.

$$|\Pr[\text{H}_1 = 1] - \Pr[\text{EvExp}^{\wedge}_{A, \kappa_0} = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(\kappa_0).$$

Proof. First, recall from [Lemma 6](#) that $\text{FT}_{@}(X^v) = Z_{@}^v \text{FT}_{@}$ for all $v \in \mathcal{Z}_p$. Therefore, the proof is the same as in [Claim 6](#), except that the ciphertext output by the challenger in $\text{EvExp}^{\wedge}_{A, \kappa_0}$ is within negligible trace distance of the quantum state

$$Z_{@}^{hx^{-1} - \dots - \frac{b}{2}c^0} |k\rangle_{y_i} = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{Z}_p} \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \chi(x) |x\rangle_{i} \quad \text{for } Ax = y^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

Therefore, the claim follows from the (everlasting) strong Gaussian-collapsing property in Theorem 10, since applying the phase operation Z^a before the measurement does not affect the measurement outcome in the computational basis. \square

Because the hybrids H_0 and H_2 are indistinguishable, this implies that

$$\text{Adv}_A^{\text{Hybrid}} \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

This proves the claim. \square

Next, we show how to extend our Dual-RegKE scheme with certified deletion in Construction 5 to a fully homomorphic encryption scheme of the same type.

4.6 Fully Homomorphic Encryption with Publicly-Verifiable Deletion

In this section, we formalize the notion of homomorphic encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion which enables an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and to also prove data deletion to a client. Let us first introduce some relevant definitions.

Definition

We begin with the following definition.

Definition 34 (Homomorphic encryption with publicly-verifiable deletion). Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. A homomorphic encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion is a tuple $\text{HE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ of QPT algorithms:

$\text{KeyGen}^{\lambda}(1-\lambda) \rightarrow (\text{pk}, \text{sk})$: takes as input $1-\lambda$ and outputs a public key pk and secret key sk .

$\text{Enc}^{\text{pk}}(\mathbb{G}, \mathbb{H}, \text{vk}, \text{CT})$: takes as input the public key pk and a plaintext $\text{CT} \in \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$, and outputs a public verification key vk together with a quantum ciphertext CT .

$\text{Dec}^{\text{sk}}(\text{CT}) \rightarrow \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ or \perp : takes as input a key sk and ciphertext CT , and outputs \mathbb{G}^{ℓ} or \perp .

$\text{Eval}^{\text{sk}}(\text{CT}, \text{pk}) \rightarrow \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$: takes as input a key sk and applies a circuit $\mathbb{C} : \mathbb{G}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}^{\ell}$ to a product of quantum ciphertexts $\text{CT} = \text{CT}_1 \dots \text{CT}_\ell$ resulting in a state $\mathbb{C}(\text{CT})$.

$\text{Del}^{\text{CT}} \rightarrow \text{c}$: takes as input a ciphertext CT and outputs a classical certificate c .

$\text{Vrfy}^{\text{vk}}(\text{c}) \rightarrow \text{yes}$ or \perp : takes as input a key vk and certificate c , and outputs yes or \perp .

We remark that we frequently overload the functionality of the encryption and decryption procedures by allowing both procedures to take multi-bit messages as input, and to generate or decrypt a sequence of quantum ciphertexts bit-by-bit.

Definition 35 (Compactness and full homomorphism) Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. A homomorphic encryption scheme $\text{HE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})^\kappa$ with publicly-verifiable deletion is fully homomorphic if, for any efficiency $(\kappa \in \mathbb{N})$ computable circuit $C : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ and any set of inputs $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n$, it holds that

$$\Pr[\text{Dec}(\text{sk}, \text{CT}) = C(\mathbf{x})] < \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(\kappa)$$

We say that a fully homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion $\text{HE}_{\text{PVD}}^\kappa$ is compact if its decryption circuit is independent of the circuit C . The scheme is leveled fully homomorphic if it takes 1^κ as an additional input for its key generation procedure and can only evaluate depth κ Boolean circuits.

Definition 36 (Correctness of verification) A homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion $\text{HE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})^\kappa$ has correctness of verification if the following property holds for any integer $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ and any set of inputs $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n$

$$\Pr[\text{Vrfy}(\text{vk}, \text{CT}) = 1] = 1 - \text{negl}(\kappa)$$

(Everlasting) certified deletion security

Our notion of certified deletion security for homomorphic encryption schemes is identical to the notion of EV-CD security for public-key encryption schemes in [Definition 33](#).

Definition 37 ((Everlasting) certified deletion security) Let $\kappa \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter and let $\text{HE} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})^\kappa$ be a homomorphic encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion. Let $A = (A_0, A_1)^\kappa$ be an adversary. We define the security experiment $\text{EvExp}_{A, \text{HE}}^{\text{CD}}(\kappa)$ between A and a challenger as follows:

1. The challenger generates a pair $(\text{pk}, \text{sk}) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1, \kappa}$, and sends pk to A .
2. A sends a plaintext pair $(m_0, m_1) \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M}$ to the challenger.
3. The challenger computes $\text{CT}_1 \leftarrow \text{Enc}^{\text{pk}}(m_1)$, and sends CT_1 to A .
4. At some point in time, A sends the certificate to the challenger, and initializes the algorithm A_1 with its internal state.
5. The challenger computes $\text{Vrfy}^{\text{vk}}(\text{CT}_1)$. If the output is $\{0,1\}$, A_1 is run until it outputs $\{0,1\}$ which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts and loses.

We say that the scheme is EV-CD-secure if, for any adversary $\mathcal{A} = \{A_0, A_1\}$ consisting of a QPT algorithm A_0 and a computationally unbounded algorithm A_1 , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{EV-CD}} := \left| \Pr[\text{EvExp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{EV-CD}} = 1] - \Pr[\text{EvExp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{EV-CD}} = 1] \right| \leq \text{negl}(\lambda).$$

4.7 Dual-Regev Fully Homomorphic Encryption with Publicly-Verifiable Deletion

In this section, we describe a protocol that allows an untrusted quantum server to perform homomorphic operations on encrypted data and to also prove data deletion to a client.

Our FHE scheme with certified deletion supports the evaluation of polynomial-sized Boolean circuits composed entirely of NAND gates (see Figure 4.4) an assumption we can make without loss of generality, since the NAND operation is universal for classical computation. Note that, for $\{0, 1\}$, the logical NOT-AND operation is defined by

$$\text{NAND}(x, y) = \overline{x \wedge y} = 1 - (x \wedge y).$$

Recall also that a Boolean circuit with input $\{0, 1\}^n$ is a directed acyclic graph (V, E) in

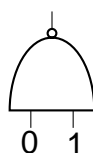


Figure 4.4: NAND gate.

which each node in V is either an input node (corresponding to an input $\{0, 1\}$), an AND (\wedge) gate, an OR (\vee) gate, or a NOT (\neg) gate. We can naturally identify a Boolean circuit with a function $f: \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ which it computes. Due to the universality of the NAND operation, we can represent every Boolean circuit (and the function it computes) with an equivalent circuit consisting entirely of NAND gates. In Figure 4.5, we give an example of a Boolean circuit composed of three NAND gates that takes as input a string $\{0, 1\}^4$.

Construction

In this section, we describe our fully homomorphic encryption scheme with certified deletion. In order to define our construction, we require a so-called blinding operation first introduced by Gentry, Sahai and Waters [69] in the context of homomorphic encryption and is also featured in the Dual-Regev FHE scheme of Mahadev [99]. Let N, q be a prime modulus and $\ell = \log q$. Then, for $\mathbf{g} = (g_1, \dots, g_\ell) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell}$, we let $\mathbf{1}$ be the $(\ell \times \ell)$ identity matrix and

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} g_1 & g_2 & \dots & g_\ell \\ \mathbf{1} & \mathbf{1} & \dots & \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\ell \times (\ell+1)}$$

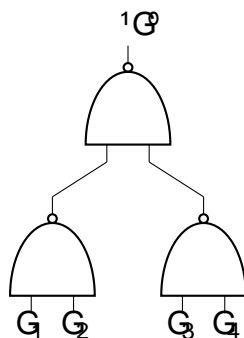


Figure 4.5: A Boolean circuit made up of three NAND gates which takes as input a binary string of the form $G_2 f_0-1g^4$. The top-most NAND gate is the designated output node with outcome $1G_2 f_0-1g$.

denote the so-called gadget matrix which converts a binary representation of a vector back to its original vector representation over the \mathbb{Z}_p . Note that the associated (non-linear) inverse operation G^{-1} converts vectors $iz_{\mathbb{Z}_p}^{-1}$ to their binary representation $in-1g^{\#}$. In other words, we have that $G \cdot G^{-1}$ acts as the identity operator.

Our (leveled) FHE scheme with certified deletion is based on the (leveled) Dual-Regev scheme introduced by Mahadev [99] which is a variant of the LWE-based FHE scheme proposed by Gentry, Sahai and Waters [69]. We base our choice of parameters on the aforementioned two works.

Let us first recall the Dual-Regev FHE scheme below.

Construction 6 (Dual-Regev leveled FHE). Let $n \geq N$ be the security parameter and let l be an upper bound on the NAND depth of the circuit which is to be evaluated. The Dual-Regev leveled FHE scheme $\text{DualFHE} = \text{KeyGen-Enc-Dec-Eval}$ consists of the following PPT algorithms:

KeyGen $^{1-\ell, 0, 1}$ (pk, sk^0) : sample $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and let $A = \sum_{j=1}^n A_j x_j \pmod{p}$.
 Output (pk, sk^0) , where $pk = A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and $sk = x \in \{0, 1\}^n$.

Enc $^{1, pk, \ell}$: to encrypt $G_2 f_0-1g$, parse $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ as pk , sample $S \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and an error $E \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and output $CT = A \cdot S + E \pmod{p}$, where G is the power-of-two gadget matrix in Eq. (4.7).

Eval $^{1-\ell, CT^0}$: apply the circuit composed of NAND gates on a ciphertext tuple CT as follows:

- ^ parse the ciphertext tuple as CT_1, \dots, CT_ℓ .
- ^ repeat for every NAND gate in \mathcal{C} : to apply a NAND gate on a ciphertext pair CT_8, CT_9 , parse matrices $C_8 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and $C_9 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ with $C_8, C_9 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{l \times n}$ and generate

$$C_{8,9} = G \cdot C_8 \cdot G^{-1} \cdot C_9 \pmod{p}$$

Let $CT_{89} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n}$ denote the outcome ciphertext.

$Dec^{sk}(CT) : \text{parse } C \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n}, \text{ compute } c = sk \cdot C \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times 1} = \frac{c}{2} \pmod{q}$ where $c \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times 1}$ is the $\#$ -th column of C , and then output 0, if c is closer to 0 than to $\frac{q}{2}$, and output 1, otherwise.

The Dual-Regev FHE scheme supports the homomorphic evaluation of a NAND gate in the following sense. If CT_0 and CT_1 are ciphertexts that encrypt two bits b_0 and b_1 , respectively, then the resulting outcome $CT = G \cdot (CT_0 \parallel CT_1) \pmod{q}$ is an encryption of $b_0 \text{ NAND } b_1 = 1 - b_0 \cdot b_1$, where G is the gadget matrix that converts a binary representation of a vector back to its original representation over the ring \mathbb{Z}_q . Moreover, the new ciphertext CT maintains the form of an LWE sample with respect to the same public key, albeit for a new LWE secret and a new (non-necessarily Gaussian) noise term of bounded magnitude. This property is crucial, as knowledge of the secret key, a short trapdoor vector) still allows for the decryption of the ciphertext once a NAND gate has been applied.

The following result is implicit in the work of Mahadev [99, Theorem 5.1].

Theorem 13 ([99]). Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $q \in \mathbb{N}$ be a prime modulus and $\beta = 2^{\log q}$ each parameterized by λ . Let $d = 1 \leq d \leq \log q$ be an integer and let L be an upper bound on the depth of the polynomial-sized Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated. Let $\epsilon = 2^{-\lambda}$ be a ratio such that

$$2^{\beta} \leq U \cdot \frac{q}{4^{1 \leq d \leq \log q} \cdot 1^{\#} \cdot 1^{\lambda}}$$

Then, the scheme in **Construction 6** is IND-CPA-secure leveled fully homomorphic encryption scheme under the LWE $_{q, n, \beta, \epsilon}$ assumption.

Note that the Dual-Regev FHE scheme is leveled in the sense that an a priori upper bound on the NAND-depth of the circuit is required to set the parameters appropriately. We remark that a proper (non-leveled) FHE scheme can be obtained under an additional circular security assumption [37].

The leveled Dual-Regev FHE scheme inherits a crucial property from its public-key counterpart. Namely, in contrast to the FHE scheme in [69], the ciphertext takes the form of a regular sample from the LWE distribution together with an additive shift G that depends on the plaintext $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$. In particular, if a Boolean circuit of polynomial NAND-depth L is applied to the ciphertext corresponding to a plaintext $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ in **Construction 6**, then the resulting ciphertext is of the form $A \cdot S + E + G$, where $S \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n}$, $E \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n}$ and $\|G\| \leq U \cdot \frac{q}{4^{1 \leq d \leq \log q} \cdot 1^{\#} \cdot 1^{\lambda}}$ (see [69] for details). Choosing U to be sub-exponential in n as in [69], we can therefore allow

for homomorphic computations of arbitrary polynomial-sized Boolean circuits of depth at most ℓ . It is easy to see that the decryption procedure of the leveled Dual-Regev scheme is successful as long as the cumulative error satisfies the condition $\frac{p}{4^{1+\ell}} > \frac{\sigma}{10}$.

This property is essential as it allows us to extend Dual-Regev scheme with certified deletion towards a leveled FHE scheme, which we denote by $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}}$. Using Gaussian coset states, we can again encode Dual-Regev ciphertexts for the purpose of certified deletion while simultaneously preserving their cryptographic functionality.

Dual-Regev leveled FHE with certified deletion. Let us now describe our (leveled) FHE scheme with certified deletion. We base our choice of parameters on the Dual-Regev scheme of Mahadev [99] which is a variant of the scheme due to Gentry, Sahai and Waters [69].

Parameters. Let $\lambda \geq 2N$ be the security parameter and $\ell \geq 2N$. Let L be an upper bound on the depth of the polynomial-sized Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated. We choose the following set of parameters for the Dual-Regev leveled FHE scheme (each parameterized by

- a prime modulus $p \geq 2$.
- an integer $k = 2 \log p$
- an integer $\beta = 1 + \log p$
- a noise ratio $\sigma \in [0, 1]$ such that

$$\frac{p}{8^{1+\ell}} \geq \frac{\sigma}{\beta^{1+\ell}}.$$

Construction 7 (Dual-Regev leveled FHE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion) Let $\lambda \geq 2N$ be a parameter and $\text{DualFHE} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval})$ be the scheme in Construction 6. The Dual-Regev (leveled) FHE scheme $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ with publicly-verifiable deletion is defined by the following algorithms:

KeyGen $^{1-\ell}$: generate (pk, sk) $\text{DualFHE} \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{1-\ell}$ and output (pk, sk) .

Enc $^{1-\ell}$: to encrypt a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, parse $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{p, 1}^{1 \times \beta}$ from pk and, for $i \in [1, \beta]$, run $(j, y_i) \leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^A$ in Algorithm 2, where $y_i \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and output the pair

$$(vk, c) = (A \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_\beta \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} X_{y_1}^{G_1} \\ \vdots \\ X_{y_\beta}^{G_\beta} \end{bmatrix})$$

where (g_1, \dots, g_β) are the columns of the gadget matrix $G \in \mathbb{Z}_{p, 1}^{\beta \times \beta}$ in Eq. (4.7).

Eval¹ – jCTi⁰ ! j CTi : apply the Boolean circuit composed of NAND gates to the ciphertext jCTi in system in = 1 as follows: For every gate NAND₈₉ in the circuit between a ciphertext pair in systems₈ and ₉, repeat the following two steps:

- ^ apply *_{NAND} from Definition 38 to systems_{8 9} of the ciphertext CT by appending an auxiliary system₈₉. This results in a new ciphertext state CT^{aux} which contains the additional system₈₉.

Output jCTi, where jCTi is the final post-evaluation state in systems_{aux out} and

- ^ in = 1 denotes the initial ciphertext systems_{CTⁱⁿ} j CT i.
- ^ aux denotes all intermediate auxiliary ciphertext systems.
- ^ out denotes the final ciphertext system corresponding to the output of the circuit

Dec¹sk – jCTi⁰ ! f 0–1g or ? : measure the ciphertext jCTi in the computational basis to obtain an outcome C and output G DualFHE • Dec¹sk – C⁰.

Del¹ jCTi⁰ ! c : measure jCTi in the Fourier basis with outcomes = 1c_{1j} •••jc_#⁰ 2 Z^{1<, 1⁰ #}.

Vrfy¹vk – pk – c ! f 0–1g : to verify the deletion certificate = 1c_{1j} •••jc_#⁰ 2 Z^{1<, 1⁰ #}, parse 1A 2 Z^{1<, 1⁰ #} = 1y_{1j} •••y_#⁰ 2 Z^{= #⁰ vk and output true, if both A¹ c₈ = y₈¹ mod @ and kc₈k < , 1 • 2U for every 8 2 # 1/4 and output false, otherwise.}

Let us now define how to perform the homomorphic NAND gate in Construction 7 in more detail.

Definition 38 (Homomorphic NAND gate) Let @ 2 be a modulus, and let # 2 N. Let X – Y – Z 2 Z^{1<, 1⁰ #} be arbitrary matrices. We define the homomorphic NAND gate as the unitary

$$*_{NAND} : |jXi\rangle_{i_1} |jYi\rangle_{i_2} |jZi\rangle_{i_3} \rightarrow |jXi\rangle_{i_1} |jYi\rangle_{i_2} |jZ, G X G^{-1} Y^0 \pmod @\rangle_{i_3}$$

where G 2 Z^{1<, 1⁰ #} is the gadget matrix in Eq(4.7).

To illustrate the action of our homomorphic NAND gate, we consider a simple example.

Example. Consider a pair of ciphertexts jCT₈ j CT₉ which encrypt two bits s₈ – s₉ 2 f0–1g as in Construction 7. Let *_{NAND₈₉} denote the homomorphic NAND gate applied to systems_{8 9}. Then,

$$*_{NAND_{89}} : |jCT_8\rangle_{i_8} |jCT_9\rangle_{i_9} |j0i\rangle_{i_{89}} \rightarrow |jCT_{89}\rangle_{i_8 i_9 i_{89}}$$

Here, jCT_{89} is the resulting ciphertext in systems s_9 . Note that $\star_{NAND_{89}}$ is reversible in the sense that

$$\star_{NAND_{89}} : jCT_{89} \rightarrow jCT_{89} \oplus jCT_{99} \oplus jO_{89}$$

Let us now analyze how \star_{NAND} acts on the basis states of a pair of ciphertexts jCT_{89} that encode LWE samples as in [Construction 7](#). In the following, E_8, E_9 have a (truncated) discrete Gaussian distribution as part of the superposition. Then,

$$\star_{NAND_{89}} : jAS_{89}, E_{89}, G_{89} \oplus jAS_{99}, E_{99}, G_{99} \oplus jO_{89} \\ \rightarrow jAS_{89}, E_{89}, G_{89} \oplus jAS_{99}, E_{99}, G_{99} \oplus jAS_{89}, E_{89}, G_{89} \oplus jO_{89}$$

where introduced the following matrices

$$S_{89} := S_8 G^{-1} AS_{99}, E_{99}, G_{99} \oplus S_8^{-1} \text{mod } @ \\ E_{89} := E_8 G^{-1} AS_{99}, E_{99}, G_{99} \oplus E_8^{-1} \text{mod } @$$

Because the initial error terms have the property $\|E_k\| \leq U @ \sqrt{1 < , 1^0 \cdot 2}$, it follows that the resulting error after a single NAND gate is at most (see also [\[69, 99\]](#) for more details)

$$\|E_{89}\| \leq U @ \frac{\sqrt{1 < , 1^0}}{2}$$

In other words, the cumulative error term remains short relative to the modulus after every application of a homomorphic NAND gate, exactly as in the Dual-Regime scheme of Mahadev [\[99\]](#).

Proof of correctness. Let us now verify the correctness of decryption and verification of [Construction 7](#).

Lemma 23 (Compactness and full homomorphism DualFHE_{PVD}). Let $_ \geq N$ be the security parameter. Let $_ \geq 2N$, let $@ \geq 2$ be a prime and $k = 2 \log @$ each parameterized by $_$. Let $\# = \sqrt{1 < , 1^0} \log @$ and let $!$ be an upper bound on the depth of the polynomial-sized Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated. Let $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 10^{-1^0}$ be a ratio with

$$\frac{p}{8^{1 < , 1^0 \#}} \leq U @ \frac{@}{8^{1 < , 1^0 \#} \cdot 1^0}$$

Then, the scheme DualFHE_{PVD} = $\{KeyGen, Enc, Dec, Eval, Del, Vrfy\}$ in [Construction 7](#) is a compact and fully homomorphic encryption scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion. In other words, for any efficiently computable circuit $f : \{0, 1\}^g \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ and any set of inputs $G = \{G_1, \dots, G_g\}$, it holds that:

$$\Pr_{DualFHE_{PVD}} \{Dec(sk, jCT_i) \neq f(G_1, \dots, G_g)\} < \frac{1}{2} \cdot 10^{-1^0} \cdot \text{negl}(_)$$

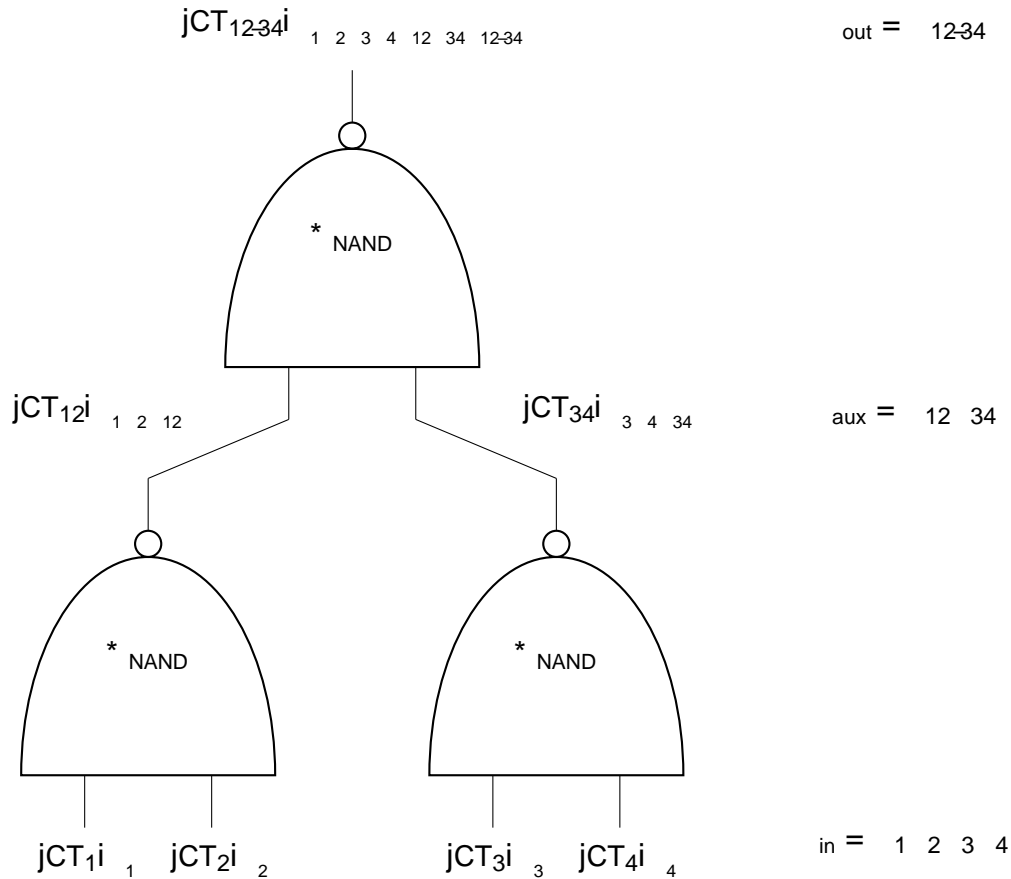


Figure 4.6: Homomorphic evaluation of a Boolean circuit composed entirely of three NAND gates. Here, the input is the quantum ciphertext $\{jCT_{1i}, jCT_{2i}, jCT_{3i}, jCT_{4i}\}$ which corresponds to an encryption of the plaintext $G = \{G_1, \dots, G_4\} \in \{0, 1\}^4$ as in Construction 7. The resulting ciphertext jCT_{1234i} lives on a system $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 12, 34, 1234\}$ of which the last system 1234 contains an encryption of $\{G_1, G_2, G_3, G_4\}$.

Proof. Let jCT_i be the ciphertext output by $\text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Enc}^{1pk}(\cdot)$, where $G \in \{0, 1\}^4$ denotes the plaintext, and let $jCT_i^0 = \text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Eval}^1(jCT_i^0)$ be the output of the evaluation procedure. Let us first consider the case where $n = 1$, i.e., not a single NAND gate has been applied to the ciphertext. In this case, the claim follows from the fact that the truncated discrete Gaussian $Z_{\sigma}^{1, 1^0} \# \frac{U_{\sigma}}{2}$ is supported on $X \in Z_{\sigma}^{1, 1^0} \# : \|X\| \leq \frac{p}{4} \sqrt{1 + 1^0} \cdot 2$. Recall that $\text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Dec}^{1sk}(jCT_i^0)$ measures the ciphertext jCT_i^0 in the computational basis with outcome $C = \{C_1, \dots, C_n\} \in \{0, 1\}^n$, where $C \in Z_{\sigma}^{1, 1^0} \#$ is a matrix, and outputs $C \in \{0, 1\}^n$. By our choice of parameters, each error term satisfies

$$\|kE_{\sigma}\| \leq \frac{r}{2} \sqrt{1 + 1^0} \cdot \frac{p}{4} \sqrt{1 + 1^0} \cdot 2 \leq \frac{p}{4} \sqrt{1 + 1^0} \cdot 2 \ll \frac{p}{4}$$

Hence, decryption correctness is preserved. Let us now consider the case where $n > 1$,

i.e. the Boolean circuit consists of at least one NAND gate which has been applied to the ciphertext jCT_i . In this case, the cumulative error in system out after l applications of NAND in Definition 38 is at most $U @ \frac{p}{8^{1 < , 1^0 \cdot 2^{1\# , 1^0!}}$, which is less than $\frac{p @}{4^{1 < , 1^0}}$ by our choice of parameters. Therefore, the procedure $\text{DualFHE} \cdot \text{Dec}_{sk}$ decrypts a computational basis state in system out of the state jCT_i correctly with probability at least $1 - \text{negl}^1_{-0}$. Furthermore, because the procedure $\text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Dec}$ is independent of the circuit and its depth l , the scheme DualFHE_{PVD} is compact. This proves the claim. \square

Let us now verify the correctness of verification of the scheme DualFHE_{PVD} in Construction 7 according to Definition 36. We show the following.

Lemma 24 (Correctness of verification) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter. Let $2 \leq N$, let $q \geq 2$ be a prime modulus and $\lambda = \log q$. Let $\epsilon = 1 < , 1^0$ and $\log q$ be an integer and let l be an upper bound on the depth of the polynomial-sized Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated. Let $U \geq 10^{-1^0}$ be a ratio with

$$p \frac{p}{8^{1 < , 1^0}} \leq U @ \frac{p @}{8^{1 < , 1^0} \cdot 1\# , 1^0!}.$$

Then, the Dual-RegFHE scheme $\text{DualFHE}_{PVD} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ with certified deletion in Construction 7 satisfies verification correctness. In other words, for any N , any plaintext $G \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and any polynomial-sized Boolean circuit entirely composed of NAND gates:

$$\Pr \text{Verify}(vk, c) = 1 \stackrel{pk, sk \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1-\epsilon)}{1vk \leftarrow \text{Enc}(pk, G)} \stackrel{c \leftarrow \text{Del}(jCT_i)}{1} \geq 1 - \text{negl}^1_{-0}.$$

Proof. Consider a bit $G \in \mathbb{F}_q$ and a public key pk given by $A = (A_j)_{j \in [1, \dots, 1^0]} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0}$, for $x \in \mathbb{F}_q$. By the Leftover Hash Lemma (Lemma 4), the distribution $A \cdot x$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution over $\mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0}$. Lemma 8 implies that the columns of A generate $\mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0}$ with overwhelming probability. We consider the ciphertext jCT_i output by $\text{Enc}(pk, G)$ where

$$jCT_i = (X_{@}^{Gg_1} | jK_{y_1, i} | \dots | X_{@}^{Gg_{\#}} | jK_{y_{\#}, i} | \dots)$$

and where $g_1, \dots, g_{\#}$ are the columns of the gadget matrix $G \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0 \times \#}$ in Eq. (4.7). Given our choice,

$$p \frac{p}{8^{1 < , 1^0}} \leq U @ \frac{p @}{8^{1 < , 1^0} \cdot 1\# , 1^0!}$$

Corollary 2 implies that the Fourier transform \hat{jCT}_i is within negligible trace distance of the state

$$\hat{jCT}_i = \int_{x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0}: Ax_1 = y_1 \pmod q} r_{\frac{1}{U}}(x_1) \prod_{i=1}^{\#} |x_{1-i} - G_{1-i}| \cdot \int_{x_{\#} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{1 < , 1^0}: Ax_{\#} = y_{\#} \pmod q} r_{\frac{1}{U}}(x_{\#}) \prod_{i=1}^{\#} |x_{\#-i} - G_{\#-i}| \cdot |x_{\#-i}|.$$

From Lemma 12, it follows that the distribution of computational basis measurement outcomes is within negligible total variation distance of the sample

$$c = \{c_1, \dots, c_{\#}\} \stackrel{y_1}{\sim} \mathcal{A}^{\otimes \frac{1}{2U}} \stackrel{y_{\#}}{\sim} \mathcal{A}^{\otimes \frac{1}{2U}}$$

where $\epsilon_k < \frac{1}{2U}$ for every $k \in \{1, \dots, \#\}$. This proves the claim. □

Proof of security

Let us now analyze the security of our FHE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion in Construction 7. Note that the results in this section all essentially carry over from Section 4.5, where we analyzed the security of our Dual-RegPKE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion.

IND-CPA security of DualFHE_{PVD}. We first prove that our scheme FHE_{PVD} in Construction 7 satisfies the notion IND-CPA security according to Definition 11. The proof is identical to the proof of IND-CPA-security of our DualPKE scheme in Theorem 11. We add it for completeness.

Theorem 14. Let $n \geq 2$, let $\ell \geq 2$ be a modulus, let $\lambda = \log \ell$ and let $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2^{\lambda}}$, each parameterized by the security parameter n . Let $U \geq \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ be a noise ratio parameter such that $\frac{1}{8^{\lambda}} < \frac{1}{U} \leq \frac{\ell}{8^{\lambda}}$. Then, the scheme DualFHE_{PVD} in Construction 7 is IND-CPA-secure assuming the quantum hardness of $\text{LWE}_{\ell, \frac{1}{U}}$ for any $V \geq \frac{1}{U} \cdot \ell$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{E} = \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}}$. We need to show that, for any QPT adversary \mathcal{A} , it holds that

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}} := |\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}} = 1] - \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}} = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(n)$$

Consider the experiment $\text{Exp}_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{ind-cpa}}$ between the adversary \mathcal{A} and a challenger taking place as follows:

1. The challenger generates a public-key $pk \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}^{\text{ind-cpa}}$, and sends pk to \mathcal{A} .
2. \mathcal{A} sends a distinct plaintext pair $(m_0, m_1) \in \{0, 1\}^{\lambda}$ to the challenger.
3. The challenger computes $(c_1, \dots, c_{\#}) \leftarrow \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Enc}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(pk, m_i)$, and sends $(c_1, \dots, c_{\#})$ to \mathcal{A} .
4. \mathcal{A} outputs a guess $b \in \{0, 1\}$, which is also the output of the experiment.

Recall that the procedure $\text{Enc}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(pk, m)$ outputs a pair (vk, jCT_1) , where

$$vk \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\lambda} = \{y_1, \dots, y_{\#}\} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell}^{\#} \quad vk$$

H_0 : This is the experiment $\text{EvExp}_{A, \mathcal{E}}^{10}$ between A and a challenger:

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and a vector $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and chooses $A = \mathcal{A}(A, x^{-1} \bmod q)$. The challenger then assigns $sk = (s^{-1}, x^{-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 1}$ as the secret key and $pk = (A, Z, 1^0)$ as the public key.
2. A sends a distinct plaintext pair $(k_0, c_0) \in \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n$ to the challenger. (Note: Without loss of generality, we can just assume that $k_0 = 0$ and $c_0 = 1$).
3. The challenger generates a sequence of pairs (y_1, y_2) $\leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^1(A, 1, U)$ in [Algorithm 2](#), for each $1 \leq i \leq n$ and sends the following to the adversary:

$$pk = (A, Z, 1^0) = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$$

$$cT_0 = (k_{y_1}, \dots, k_{y_n}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 1}$$

4. At some point in time A returns a certificate $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ to the challenger, and initializes A_1 with its internal state.
5. The challenger checks $k_{y_i} = y_i^{-1} \bmod q$ and $k_{y_i} \in \{0, 1\}^n$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. If the output is ≥ 0 for each $1 \leq i \leq n$, A_1 is run until it outputs 1^0 which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts and loses.

H_1 : This is same experiment as H_0 , except that (in Step 3) the challenger also measures the ciphertext cT_0 in the computational basis before it is sent to A .

H_2 : This is the experiment $\text{EvExp}_{A, \mathcal{E}}^{11}$ between A and a challenger:

1. The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and a vector $s \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and chooses $A = \mathcal{A}(A, x^{-1} \bmod q)$. The challenger then assigns $sk = (s^{-1}, x^{-1}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 1}$ as the secret key and $pk = (A, Z, 1^0)$ as the public key.
2. A sends a distinct plaintext pair $(k_0, c_0) \in \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^n$ to the challenger. (Note: Without loss of generality, we can just assume that $k_0 = 0$ and $c_0 = 1$).
3. The challenger generates a sequence of pairs (y_1, y_2) $\leftarrow \text{GenPrimal}^1(A, 1, U)$ in [Algorithm 2](#), for each $1 \leq i \leq n$ and sends the following pair to the adversary:

$$pk = (A, Z, 1^0) = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$$

$$cT_1 = (k_{y_1}^g, \dots, k_{y_n}^g) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times 1}$$

4. At some point in time A returns a certificate $c = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ to the challenger, and initializes A_1 with its internal state.

- The challenger checks if $c_8 = y_8^{-1} \pmod{p}$ and $k_8 < \frac{p-1}{2}$. If the output is 0 for each $8 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, A_1 is run until it outputs 1^0 which is also the output of the experiment. Otherwise, the challenger aborts.

We now show that the hybrids are indistinguishable.

Claim 8.

$$|\Pr_{\text{EvExp}}^{\Lambda_{-1}^0} = 1/4 - \Pr_{\mathcal{H}_1} = 1/4| \leq \text{negl}^0.$$

Proof. By the Leftover Hash Lemma (Lemma 4), the distribution of $Ax_1 \pmod{p}$ is within negligible total variation distance of the uniform distribution $U_{\mathbb{Z}_p}$. From Lemma 8 it follows that the columns of A generate \mathbb{Z}_p^* with overwhelming probability. Since 2^{-10} is a noise ratio parameter with

$$\frac{p-1}{8} > 10 \Rightarrow U_{\mathbb{Z}_p} \approx \frac{1}{p} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_p} \delta_{i,0}$$

Corollary 2 implies that the Fourier transform of $\text{GenPrimal}^1(A) \cdot U^0$ in Algorithm 2, for each $8 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is within negligible trace distance of the dual state

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{0} & \quad r_{\frac{1}{p}} |x_1^0\rangle_{jx_1} \\ \text{with } x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* & \quad \text{Ax}_1 = y_1^{-1} \pmod{p} \end{aligned} \quad \tilde{0} \quad r_{\frac{1}{p}} |x_{\#}^0\rangle_{jx_{\#}} \bullet$$

Therefore, the claim follows immediately from the (everlasting) strong Gaussian-collapsing property in Theorem 10, which implies that the measurement in the computational basis is undetectable.

Next, we show the following.

Claim 9.

$$|\Pr_{\mathcal{H}_1} = 1/4 - \Pr_{\text{EvExp}}^{\Lambda_{-1}^1} = 1/4| \leq \text{negl}^0.$$

Proof. First, recall from Lemma 6 that $\text{FT}_{\mathbb{Z}_p}^v = Z_{\mathbb{Z}_p}^v \text{FT}_{\mathbb{Z}_p}$ for all $v \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$. Therefore, the proof is the same as in Claim 8, except that the ciphertext output by the challenger in $\text{EvExp}^{\Lambda_{-1}^1}$ is within negligible trace distance of the quantum state

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{0} & \quad r_{\frac{1}{p}} |x_1^0\rangle_{jx_1} |h_{x_1^{-1}g_i}\rangle \\ \text{with } x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* & \quad \text{Ax}_1 = y_1^{-1} \pmod{p} \end{aligned} \quad \tilde{0} \quad r_{\frac{1}{p}} |x_{\#}^0\rangle_{jx_{\#}} |h_{x_{\#}^{-1}g_i}\rangle \bullet$$

Therefore, the claim follows from the (everlasting) strong Gaussian-collapsing property in Theorem 10, since applying the phase operators $Z_{\mathbb{Z}_p}^{g_i}$ for $8 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ before the measurement does not affect the measurement outcome in the computational basis. \square

Because the hybrids H_0 and H_2 are indistinguishable, this implies that

$$\text{Adv}_A^{1-\epsilon} = \text{negl}(\epsilon).$$

This proves the claim. \square

4.8 Four-Message Protocol for FHE with Simultaneous Data Deletion

Our Dual-Regev encryption scheme in [Construction 7](#) separately supports both homomorphic operations as well as publicly-verifiable deletion. It is therefore natural to ask whether it is possible to achieve both tasks simultaneously, say in a protocol between a client and an untrusted server. Remarkably, such a protocol would allow an untrusted server to compute on private data and, if requested, to simultaneously also prove data deletion to a client. We now show that such a protocol is indeed possible, albeit with a few important caveats which we explain below.

Recall that [Construction 7](#) has the property that when applying homomorphic operations, the resulting ciphertext maintains the form of a LWE sample with respect to the same public key pk , albeit for a new LWE secret and a new (non-necessarily Gaussian) noise term of bounded magnitude. Unfortunately, the resulting ciphertext is now a highly entangled state since the unitary operation U_{NAND} induces entanglement between LWE secrets and Gaussian error terms of the superposition. This raises the following question: How can a server perform both homomorphic computations and, if requested, to later prove data deletion to a client? In some sense, applying a single homomorphic NAND gates breaks the structure of the Gaussian states in a way that prevents us from obtaining a valid deletion certificate via a Fourier basis measurement. Our solution to the problem involves one additional round of interaction (as compared to a regular homomorphic encryption protocol) between the quantum server and the client in order to certify deletion.

In [Protocol 1](#), we describe a four-message protocol for FHE with simultaneous data deletion which is based on our Dual-Regev (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption scheme in [Construction 7](#). This is a four-message interactive protocol which enables an untrusted quantum server to compute on encrypted data and, if requested, to simultaneously prove data deletion to a client. The basic idea behind our approach for certified deletion is the following: After performing a Boolean circuit via a sequence of NAND gates starting from the ciphertext c in system \mathcal{H}_{in} corresponding to an encryption of $G^{-1}f(0-1)^g$, the server simply sends the quantum system \mathcal{H}_{out} containing an encryption of G to the client. Then, using the secret key (i.e., a trapdoor for the public matrix pk), it is possible for the client to extract the outcome G from the system \mathcal{H}_{out} with overwhelming probability without significantly damaging the state. In [Lemma 25](#), we show that it is possible to rewind the procedure in a way that it results in a state which is negligibly close to the original state in system \mathcal{H}_{out} . At this step of the protocol, the client has learned the outcome of the homomorphic application of the circuit while the server is still in possession of a large number of auxiliary

systems (denoted by aux) which mark intermediate applications of the gates. In order to enable certified deletion, the client must now return the system out to the server. Having access to all three systems in , aux , out , the server is then able to undo the sequence of homomorphic gates in order to return to the original product state in system in (up to negligible trace distance). Since the ciphertext in the server's possession is now approximately a simple product of Gaussian states, the server can perform a Fourier basis measurement of systems aux required. Once the protocol is complete, it is therefore possible for the client to know out and to be convinced that data deletion has taken place. Crucially, this requires that the server is honest during the evaluation phase of the protocol. We further elaborate on this important caveat of our protocol towards the end of this section.

Let us now describe our four-message protocol FHE with simultaneous data deletion, which is based on our Dual-Regev homomorphic encryption scheme in [Construction 7](#).

Protocol 1 (Four-Message Protocol for FHE with Simultaneous Data Deletion)

Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter and $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})$ be the Dual-Regev (levelled) FHE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion in [Construction 7](#). Consider the following quantum interactive protocol $\text{hC}^1 - \text{S}^{1-\lambda}$ between a quantum client C with data G and a quantum server S :

Setup phase:

1. C runs $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}}.\text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda)$ to generate a pair of keys, where λ is an upper bound on the depth of the Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated.

Encryption phase:

1. C runs the procedure $(j, CT_i, vk) \leftarrow \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}}.\text{Enc}(pk, G)$ to obtain a quantum ciphertext CT_i and a public verification key vk .
2. C sends the public key vk and ciphertext CT_i to the quantum server S .

Evaluation phase:

1. S runs the evaluation procedure $(j, CT_i) \leftarrow \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}}.\text{Eval}(sk, CT_i)$, for some classical Boolean circuit f , which results in a quantum ciphertext CT_i in systems in , aux , out .
2. S sends the register out to C .

3. C appends an ancilla register $|0\rangle$ and then runs the procedure $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Dec}^{1-sk-0}$ coherently on register out . Then, C measures system out to obtain a bit $H_2(f_0-1g)$ (the supposed output of the Boolean circuit)
4. C returns the post-measurement register out to S.
5. S applies the previous evaluation procedure $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Eval}^{1-0}$ in reverse on input the registers $\text{in}_{\text{aux}} \text{out}$. Let \hat{CT} denote the resulting ciphertext.

Deletion phase:

- ^ S runs the procedure $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Del}^{1-CT^0}$.
- ^ C runs $\text{flag} = \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Vrfy}^{1-vk-0}$ and outputs $\text{flag} \in \{0, 1\}$.

Correctness

Recall that the procedure $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Eval}$ in [Construction 7](#) produces a highly entangled state since the unitary operation U_{NAND} induces entanglement between the Gaussian noise terms. In the next lemma, we show that it is possible to rewind the evaluation procedure in order to allow the server to subsequently prove data deletion to a client.

Lemma 25 (Rewinding lemma) Let $\ell \geq 2N$. Let $\ell = 2N$, let $\ell \geq 2$ be a prime modulus and $\ell \geq 2 = \log \ell$. Let $\ell = 1 < \ell, 1^0 \leq \log \ell$ be an integer and let ℓ be an upper bound on the depth of the polynomial-sized Boolean circuit which is to be evaluated. Let $\ell \geq 1-0^0$ be a ratio such that

$$\frac{\ell}{8^{1 < \ell, 1^0 \#}} \leq U_{\ell} \leq \frac{\ell}{8^{1 < \ell, 1^0 \# \ell, 1^0!}}$$

Let $\text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Eval}, \text{Del}, \text{Vrfy})^0$ be the Dual-Regen (leveled) FHE scheme with publicly-verifiable deletion in [Construction 7](#) and let \mathcal{G} be the interactive protocol in [Protocol 1](#). Then, the following holds for any parameter $\ell \geq 2N$, plaintext $G \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ and any polynomial-sized Boolean circuit C : After the evaluation phase of the protocol $\mathcal{G} = \text{S}^{1-0^i}$ is complete, the server S is in possession of a quantum state \hat{CT} in system in that satisfies

$$\|\hat{CT} - j_{CT} \text{in} CT\|_{\text{tr}} \leq \text{negl}^{1-\ell}$$

where $j_{CT} \text{in} CT = \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Enc}^{1-pk-0}$ is the initial quantum ciphertext in systems $\text{in}_{\text{aux}} \text{out}$ for the pair of keys $(pk, sk) = \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{KeyGen}^{1-1^0}$.

Proof. Let $\ell \geq 2N$, $G \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$ be a plaintext and C be any Boolean circuit of NAND-depth $\ell = \text{poly}^{1-0}$. Let $j_{CT} \text{in} CT = \text{DualFHE}_{\text{PVD}} \cdot \text{Eval}^{1-j_{CT}^0}$ be the post-evaluation state $j_{CT} \text{in} CT$ in systems $\text{in}_{\text{aux}} \text{out}$ and let \hat{CT} be the state at the end of the evaluation phase of the protocol $\mathcal{G} = \text{S}^{1-0^i}$. Recall that, in [Lemma 23](#), we established that there exists a negligible

ϵ such that $\text{DualFHE} \cdot \text{Dec}_{sk}$ decrypts system_{out} of \mathcal{C}_T with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$. By the Almost As Good As New Lemma (Lemma 1), performing the operation $\text{DualFHE} \cdot \text{Dec}_{sk}$, measuring the ancillary register ρ and rewinding the computation, results in a mixed state that is within trace distance ϵ of the post-evaluation state \mathcal{C}_T . Let $\{C_i\}$ be sequence of homomorphic AND gates which are applied according to the circuit. Notice that, by reversing the sequence of AND gates which are applied to \mathcal{C}_T , we recover the initial ciphertext $\mathcal{C}_T = \{C_i\} \mathcal{C}_T \{C_i\}^*$ in system_{in} . By definition, we also have that $\mathcal{C}_T = \{C_i\} r^* \{C_i\}^*$. Therefore,

$$\text{key}_{CT} \{C_i\} \mathcal{C}_T \{C_i\}^* k_{tr} = \{C_i\} r^* \{C_i\}^* \{C_i\} \mathcal{C}_T \{C_i\}^* k_{tr} = \text{key}_{CT} \{C_i\} \mathcal{C}_T \{C_i\}^* k_{tr} \quad \epsilon$$

since the trace distance is unitarily invariant. Thus, $\epsilon = \text{negl}(\epsilon)$ which proves the claim. \square

Security. Our four-message protocol for FHE with simultaneous data deletion in Protocol 1 immediately inherits the following security guarantees from the underlying Dual-Regev homomorphic encryption scheme Construction 7:

- Privacy: This ensures that the data is computationally hidden from the view of the server, once the encryption phase ends. In other words, for any pair of messages $\{m_0, m_1\}$ (selectively chosen by the server), the following are computationally indistinguishable,

$$\text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Enc}^{pk} \{m_0\} \quad \text{DualFHE}_{PVD} \cdot \text{Enc}^{pk} \{m_1\}$$

where pk is the public key output by $\text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon}$. This follows from the semantic security of our Dual-Regev scheme which we proved in Theorem 14.

- Certified deletion: This ensures the following: Once the evaluation phase is completed and deletion phase is successful, the data $\{m_0, m_1\}$ is information-theoretically deleted from the view of the server once a valid certificate is presented provided the server is honest during the evaluation phase. This is essentially a consequence of Lemma 25 which guarantees that, once the evaluation phase is completed (and the server has performed the prescribed evaluation procedure), the leftover state is negligibly close to the original ciphertext. Therefore, the EV-CD security of our Dual-Regev scheme from Theorem 15 applies.

Therefore, our protocol only achieves a meaningful security guarantee in the so-called honest setting [81], which requires that the adversary is honest during the evaluation phase of the protocol, but may later choose to maliciously analyze any leftover information which was collected throughout the protocol. A quantum analogue of the semi-honest adversarial model was also studied in [58] who consider so-called specious adversaries more generally. We leave the task of improving Protocol 1 as to allow for a possibly malicious server as an interesting open problem.

Chapter 5

REVOKING CRYPTOGRAPHIC KEYS

In this chapter, we build on the no-cloning principle of quantum mechanics and design cryptographic schemes with key-revocation capabilities. We consider several primitives with the guarantee that, once the secret key (represented as a quantum state) is successfully revoked from a user, they no longer have the ability to perform the same functionality as before. We define and construct several key-revocable cryptographic primitives; namely, pseudorandom functions, secret-key and public-key encryption, and even fully homomorphic encryption, assuming the quantum subexponential hardness of the learning with errors problem. Central to all of the constructions in this chapter is our key-revocable Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme.

Organization. In Section 5.2, we show how to obtain a quantum discrete Gaussian sampler. This is a crucial subroutine which allows us to efficiently verify whether a given state corresponds to a particular Gaussian superposition. In Section 5.3 we prove the first quantum Goldreich-Levin theorem for large fields. Here, we rely on recent results on post-quantum reductions and rewinding which we also review in this section. Next, in Section 5.4, we describe the syntax of what a key-revocable public-key (as well as homomorphic) encryption scheme is. In Section 5.5, we introduce our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme, which is the main section of this chapter. Our main technical result is a simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary input. In the subsequent section, we describe how to extend key-revocation capabilities towards homomorphic encryption schemes. Finally, in Section 5.7, we construct revocable pseudorandom functions by means of our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme.

5.1 Introduction

Delegation and revocation of privilege are problems of great importance in cryptography. The problem of revocation in the context of digital signatures and certificates in the classical world is an especially thorny problem [121, 114]. As a motivating example, consider the setting of an employee at a company who takes a vacation and wishes to authorize a colleague to perform certain tasks on her behalf, tasks that involve handling sensitive data. Since the sensitive data is (required to be) encrypted, the employee must necessarily share her decryption keys with her colleague. When she returns from vacation, she would like to have her decryption key back; naturally, one would like to ensure that her colleague should not be able to decrypt future ciphertexts (which are encrypted under the same public key) once the key is returned. Evidently, if the decryption key is a classical

object, this is impossible to achieve.

In key-revocable cryptography, we associate a cryptographic functionality, such as decryption using a secret key, with a quantum state in such a way that a user can compute this functionality if and only if they are in possession of the quantum state. We then design a revocation algorithm which enables the user to certifiably return the quantum state to the owner. Security requires that once the user returns the state (via our revocation algorithm), they should not have the ability to evaluate the functionality (e.g., decrypt ciphertexts) anymore. We refer to this new security notion as **revocation security**.

Another, possibly non-obvious, application is to detecting malware attacks. Consider a malicious party who hacks into an electronic device and manages to steal a user's decryption keys. If cryptographic keys are represented by classical bits, it is inherently challenging to **preventing** attacks that compromise user keys. For all we know, the intruder could have stolen the user's decryption keys without leaving a trace. Indeed, a few years ago, decryption keys which were used to protect cell-phone communications [85] were successfully stolen by spies without being detected. With revocable cryptography, a malicious user successfully stealing a user key would invariably revoke the decryption capability from the user. This latter event can be detected.

Our Results in a Nutshell. We construct revocable cryptographic objects under standard cryptographic assumptions. This chapter features two main results. Our first main result constructs a key-revocable public-key encryption scheme, and our second main result constructs a key-revocable pseudorandom function. We obtain several corollaries and extensions, including key-revocable secret-key encryption and key-revocable fully homomorphic encryption. In all these primitives, secret keys are represented as quantum states that retain the functionality of the original secret keys. We design revocation procedures and guarantee that once a user successfully passes the procedure, they cannot compute the functionality any more. All our constructions are secure under the quantum subexponential hardness of learning with errors [112] provided that revocation succeeds with high probability. At the heart of all of our contributions lies our result which shows that the Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme of [68] satisfies revocation security.

Related Notions. There are several recent notions in quantum cryptography that are related to revocability. Of particular relevance is the stronger notion of copy-protection introduced by Aaronson [2]. Breaking the revocable security of a task gives the adversary a way to make two copies of a (possibly different) state both of which are capable of computing the same functionality. Thus, uncloneability is a stronger notion. However, the only known constructions of copy-protection [54, 96] rely on the heavy hammer of post-quantum secure indistinguishability obfuscation for which there are no known constructions based on well-studied assumptions. Our constructions, in contrast,

rely on the post-quantum hardness of the standard learning with errors problem. Another related notion is the significantly weaker definition of secure software leasing [17] which guarantees that once the quantum state computing a functionality is returned to the honest evaluation algorithm cannot compute the original functionality. Yet another orthogonal notion is that of certifiably deleting ciphertexts originating from the works of Unruh [127] and Broadbent and Islam [40]. In contrast, our goal is to delegate and revoke cryptographic capabilities enabled by private keys. For detailed comparisons, we refer the reader to Section 5.1.

Our Contributions in More Detail

We present our results in more detail below. First, we introduce the notion of key-revocable public-key encryption. Our main result is that dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme [68] satisfies revocation security. After that, we study revocation security in the context of fully homomorphic encryption and pseudorandom functions.

Key-Revocable Public-Key Encryption. We consider public-key encryption schemes where the decryption key, modeled as a quantum state, can be delegated to a third party and can later be revoked [70]. The syntax of a key-revocable public-key scheme (Definition 39) is as follows:

- $\text{KeyGen}^{1-\epsilon}$: this is a setup procedure which outputs a public key pk , a master secret key msk and a decryption key r_{sk} . While the master secret key is typically a classical string, the decryption key is modeled as a quantum state. (The use cases of msk and r_{sk} are different, as will be evident below.)
- $\text{Enc}^{1-\epsilon}_{pk}$: this is the regular classical encryption algorithm which outputs a ciphertext ct .
- $\text{Dec}^{1-\epsilon}_{r_{sk}-CT}$: this is a quantum algorithm which takes as input the quantum decryption key r_{sk} and a classical ciphertext, and produces a plaintext.
- $\text{Revoke}^{1-\epsilon}_{pk-msk-f}$: this is the revocation procedure that outputs Valid or Invalid . If f equals the decryption key r_{sk} , then Revoke is expected to output Invalid with high probability.

After the decryption key is returned, we require that the sender loses its ability to decrypt ciphertexts. This is formalized as follows (see Definition 40): conditioned on revocation being successful, the adversary should not be able to distinguish whether it is given an encryption of a message versus uniform distribution over the ciphertext space with more than negligible advantage. Moreover, we require that revocation succeeds with a probability negligibly close to 1 (more on this later).

We prove the following in Theorem 24.

Theorem (Informal). Assuming that the LWE and SIS problems with subexponential modulus are hard against quantum adversaries running in subexponential time (see Section 2.6), there exists a key-revocable public-key encryption scheme.

Due to the quantum reduction from SIS to LWE [120], the two assumptions are, in some sense, equivalent. Therefore, we can in principle rely on the subexponential hardness of one.

Our results improve upon prior works, which either use post-quantum secure indistinguishability obfuscation [70, 54] or consider the weaker private-key setting [88].

Key-Revocable Fully Homomorphic Encryption. We go beyond the traditional public-key setting and design the first fully homomorphic encryption (FHE) scheme [67, 37] with key-revocation capabilities. Our construction is based on a variant of the (leveled) scheme of Gentry, Sahai and Waters [69], which we extend to a key-revocable encryption scheme using Gaussian superpositions. The syntax of a key-revocable FHE scheme is the same as in the key-revocable public-key setting from before (Definition 39), except for the additional algorithm Revoke^1 which is the same as in a regular FHE scheme. We prove the following in Theorem 33.

Theorem (Informal). Assuming that the LWE and SIS problems with subexponential modulus are hard against quantum adversaries running in subexponential time (see Section 2.6), there exists a key-revocable (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption scheme.

We prove the theorem by invoking the security of our key-revocable Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme in Section 5.5.

(Key-)Revocable Pseudorandom Functions. We consider other cryptographic primitives with key-revocation capabilities that go beyond decryption functionalities; specifically, we introduce the notion of key-revocable pseudorandom functions (PRFs) with the following syntax:

- $\hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-0}$: outputs a PRF key k , a quantum key qk , and a master secret msk .
- $\hat{\text{PRF}}^1$: \mathcal{G} : on key k and input G output a value H . This is a deterministic algorithm.
- $\hat{\text{Eval}}^1$: \mathcal{G} on input a state σ and an input G output a value H .
- $\hat{\text{Revoke}}^1$: $msk - f^0$: on input verification msk and state σ , outputs Valid or Invalid.

After the quantum key qk is successfully returned, we require that the sender loses its ability to evaluate the PRF. This is formalized as follows (see Definition 44): any efficient adversary can

simultaneously pass the revocation phase and succeed in predicting the output of a pseudorandom function on a challenge input x versus uniform with advantage at most ϵ . In fact, we consider a more general definition where the adversary receives many challenge inputs instead of just one challenge input.

We give the first construction of key-revocable pseudorandom functions (PRFs) from standard assumptions. Previous schemes implicit in [54] either require indistinguishability obfuscation, or considered weaker notions of revocable PRFs in the form of secure software leasing [47, 89], which merely prevents the possibility of honestly evaluating the PRF once the key is revoked.

Since in the context of pseudorandom functions, it is clear what is being revoked, we instead simply call the notion revocable pseudorandom functions. We prove the following:

Theorem (Informal). Assuming that the WE and SIS problems with subexponential modulus are hard against quantum adversaries running in subexponential time (see Section 2.6), there exist key-revocable pseudorandom functions.

Revocable pseudorandom functions immediately give us key-revocable (many time secure) secret-key encryption schemes.

Inverse polynomial revocation based on SDRE conjectures. In all the results above, we assume that the probability of revocation is negligibly close to 1. Even in this restrictive setting, our proofs turn out to be highly non-trivial and require careful use of a diverse set of techniques! Moreover, to date, no constructions of key-revocable PRFs or FHE were known based on assumptions weaker than post-quantum IO.

A natural question to explore is whether we can achieve the following stronger security notion of revocable public-key encryption: if the adversary successfully revokes with inverse polynomial probability then semantic security of revocable PKE still holds. If we can achieve this stronger notion of revocable PKE then we would also achieve the corresponding stronger notions of revocable PRFs and FHE based on the same computational assumptions.

We show how to achieve all of our results based on a conjecture, that we call Simultaneous Dual-Reggev Extraction (SDRE) conjecture. Informally, the conjecture states that if Dual-Reggev is not key-revocable then there exists a quantum adversary who given a Gaussian superposition of short preimages mapping a random matrix A to a vector can simultaneously produce y_i and a short vector in the support of y_i with non-negligible probability.

In more detail, the SDRE conjecture states the following: suppose the Dual-Revocable is not key-revocable (according to the above stronger definition) then there exists an adversary $\mathcal{A} = \{A_1, A_2\}$ such that the following holds:

- A_1 is given $(y, \{j_{k_y, i}\})$, where $k_y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ and $\{j_{k_y, i}\}$ is a Gaussian superposition of all the short vectors mapping A to y . It produces a bipartite state on two registers A and AUX .
- A projective measurement \mathcal{M} is applied that projects onto the state $|k_y\rangle$, and A_2 is run on AUX . We require that the (simultaneous) probability that the projective measurement succeeds and A_2 outputs a short preimage mapping A to y should be inverse polynomial.

The difficulty in proving the conjecture lies in the fact that one needs to invoke the LWE assumption with respect to A_2 who holds AUX , while at the same time guaranteeing that an inefficient projective measurement succeeds on a separate register. We leave proving (or refuting) the above conjecture to future works.

Discussion: Unclonable Cryptography from LWE. Over the years, the existence of many fundamental cryptographic primitives such as pseudorandom functions [21], fully homomorphic encryption [37], attribute-based encryption [33] and succinct argument systems [50] have been based on the existence of learning with errors. In fact, as far as we know, there are only a few foundational primitives remaining (indistinguishability obfuscation is one such example) whose existence is not (yet) known to be based on learning with errors.

This situation is quite different in the world of unclonable cryptography. Most of the prominent results have information-theoretic guarantees but restricted functionalities [40, 41] or are based on the existence of post-quantum indistinguishability obfuscation [137, 54]. While there are works [90] that do propose lattice-based constructions of unclonable primitives, there are still many primitives, such as quantum money and quantum copy-protection, whose feasibility we would like to establish based on the existence of learning with errors. We hope that our work presents new toolkits towards building more unclonable primitives from LWE.

Independent and Concurrent Work. Independently and concurrently, Agrawal et al. [8] explored the notion of public-key encryption with secure leasing which is related to key-revocable public-key encryption. They achieve a generic construction based on any post-quantum secure public-key encryption whereas our notion is based on the post-quantum hardness of learning with errors. They also explore other notions of advanced encryption with secure leasing including attribute-based encryption and functional encryption, which are not explored in our work.

On the other hand, their construction of revocable public-key encryption involves many abstractions whereas our construction is based on the versatile Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme. Additionally, we obtain key-revocable fully homomorphic encryption and key-revocable pseudorandom functions which are unique to our work.

- ^ Advanced notions We obtain key-revocable fully homomorphic encryption and key-revocable pseudorandom functions which are unique to our work. They explore other notions of advanced encryption with secure leasing including attribute-based encryption and functional encryption, which are not explored in our work.
- ^ Public-key encryption They achieve a generic construction based on any post-quantum secure public-key encryption whereas our notion is based on the post-quantum hardness of the learning with errors problem or the LWE conjecture. Their construction of revocable public-key encryption involves many complex abstractions whereas our construction is based on the versatile Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme.

Overview

We now give a technical overview of our constructions and their high level proof ideas. We begin with the key-revocable public-key encryption construction. A natural idea would be to start with Regev's public-key encryption scheme [112] and to then upgrade the construction in order to make it revocable. However, natural attempts to associate an unclonable quantum state with the decryption key fail and thus, we instead consider the Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme and make it key-revocable. We describe the scheme below.

Key-Revocable Dual-Regev Public-Key Encryption. Our first construction is based on the Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme [68] and makes use of Gaussian superpositions which serve as a quantum decryption key. We give an overview of [Construction 8](#) below.

- ^ $\text{KeyGen}^{11=0}$: sample a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ along with a short trapdoor basis S_A . To generate the decryption key, we employ the following procedure: using the matrix A as input, first create a Gaussian superposition of short vectors $z \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ in \mathbb{Z}_q^m , denoted by

$$|j\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} e^{2\pi i \langle Ax, j \rangle} |x\rangle$$

¹Their construction achieves the stronger definition where the revocation only needs to succeed with inverse polynomial probability.

²In Section 5.2, this is formalized as the procedure Gauss (see Algorithm 3).

³Note that the state is not normalized for convenience.

where $r_f^{-1}x^0 = \exp(-\frac{1}{2}x^T C x)$ is the Gaussian measure, for some $C \succ 0$. Next, measure the second register which partially collapses the superposition and results in the state

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq}|}} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq}: Ax=y \pmod{q}} r_f^{-1}x^0 |x\rangle$$

for some outcome $y \in \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq}$. Finally, we let $|k_y\rangle$ be the decryption key $jski$, (A, y^0) be the public key pk , and we let the trapdoor t_A serve as the master secret msk .

- Enc pk : to encrypt a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, sample a random string $s \in \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq}$ together with discrete Gaussian errors $e \in \mathcal{Z}^{\leq}$ and $z \in \mathcal{Z}$, and output the (classical) ciphertext CT given by

$$CT = (s^T A, e^T y, z, \lfloor \frac{b}{2} \rfloor c^0 \pmod{q}) \in \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq} \times \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq} \times \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq} \times \mathcal{Z}_A^{\leq}$$

- Dec jski : to decrypt a ciphertext CT using the decryption key $jski = |k_y\rangle$, first apply the unitary $U: |x\rangle \mapsto |x + y^0\rangle$ on input $|k_y\rangle$, and then measure the second register in the computational basis. Because $|k_y\rangle$ is a superposition of short vectors subject to $Ax = y \pmod{q}$, we obtain an approximation of $\lfloor \frac{b}{2} \rfloor c^0$ from which we can recover b .
- Revoke $^{pk, msk}$: to verify the returned state given as input the public key (A, y^0) and master secret t_A , apply the projective measurement $\Pi_{|k_y\rangle} = |k_y\rangle\langle k_y|$ onto r . Output Valid, if the measurement succeeds, and Invalid, otherwise.

Implementing revocation, efficiently. Note that performing a projective measurement onto a fixed Gaussian state $|k_y\rangle$ is, in general, computationally infeasible. In fact, if it were to be possible to efficiently perform this projection using (A, y^0) alone, then one could easily use such a procedure to solve the short integer solutions (SIS) problem. Fortunately, we additionally have the trapdoor for A at our disposal in order to perform such a projection.

One of our contributions is to design a quantum discrete Gaussian sampler for arbitrary lattices which, given as input (A, y^0, t_A) , implements a unitary that efficiently prepares the Gaussian superposition $|k_y\rangle$ from scratch with access to the trapdoor t_A . At a high level, our Gaussian sampler can be alternately thought of as an explicit quantum reduction from the SIS problem [9] to the search variant of the LWE problem (see Section 5.2).

⁴For appropriate choices of parameters, decryption via rounding succeeds at output with overwhelming probability and hence we can invoke the Almost as Good as New Lemma [1] to recover the original state $|k_y\rangle$.

⁵In Section 5.2, this is formalized as the procedure SampleGauss (see Algorithm 4).

Insight: Reduction to SIS. Our goal is to use the state returned by the adversary and to leverage the indistinguishability guarantee in order to break some computational problem. It should seem suspicious whether such a reduction is even possible: after all the adversary is returning the state we gave them! How could this possibly help? Our main insight lies in the following observation: while the adversary does eventually return the state we give them, the only way it can later succeed in breaking the semantic security of dual Regev PKE is if it retains useful information about the state. If we could somehow extract this information from the adversary, then using the extracted information alongside the returned state, we could hope to break some computational assumption. For instance, suppose we can extract a short vector x such that $Ax = y \pmod{q}$. By measuring the state returned by the adversary, we could then hope to get a second short vector x^0 such that $Ax^0 = y \pmod{q}$, and from this, we can recover a short solution in the kernel of $A \pmod{q}$.

Even if, for a moment, we disregard the issue of being able to extract from the adversary, there are still some important missing steps in the above proof template:

- ^ Firstly, measuring the returned state should give a vector different from x with non-negligible probability. In order to prove this, we need to argue that the squared amplitude of every term is bounded away from 1. We prove this statement (Lemma 17) holds as long as A is full rank.
- ^ Secondly, the reduction to SIS would only get as input A and not a trapdoor for A . This means that it will no longer be possible for the reduction to actually check whether the state returned by the adversary is valid. We observe that, instead of first verifying whether the returned state is valid and then measuring in the computational basis, we can in fact skip verification and immediately go ahead and measure the state in the computational basis; this is implicit in the analysis in the proof of Lemma 29.
- ^ Finally, the adversary could have entangled the returned state with its residual state in such a way that measuring the returned state always yields the same vector as the one extracted from the adversary. In the same analysis in the proof of Lemma 29, we prove that, even if the adversary entangles its state with the returned state, with non-negligible probability we get two distinct short vectors mapping to y .

All that is left is to argue that one can extract from the adversary while simultaneously verifying whether the returned state is correct or not. To show that we can indeed extract another short pre-image from the adversary's quantum side information, we make use of what we call a simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary information in the Dual-Regev scheme.

Main contribution: Simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum advice. Informally, our theorem says the following: any successful Dual-Regev distinguisher with access to

quantum side information Aux (which depends on the decryption key) can be converted into a successful extractor that finds a key on input Aux even conditioned on $Revoke$ succeeding on a separate register R . We now present some intuition behind our proof.

Suppose there exists a successful Dual-Regev distinguisher D (as part of the adversary A) that, given quantum auxiliary information Aux , can distinguish between $1/2 \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot e^{-s|y|^2} \cdot 4^{\langle y, x_0 \rangle}$ and uniform $1/2 \sum_{z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} z$ with advantage ϵ .

Ignoring register R : For now, let us ignore the fact that $Revoke$ is simultaneously applied on system R . Inspired by techniques from the leakage resilience literature [57], we now make the following observation. Letting $y = A \cdot x_0 + 1 \pmod q$, for some Gaussian vector x_0 with distribution proportional to $e^{-s|x_0|^2}$, the former sample can be written as $1/2 \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot e^{-s|y|^2} \cdot A \cdot e^{-s|x_0|^2} \cdot 4^{\langle y, x_0 \rangle}$. Here, we assume a noise flooding regime in which the noise magnitude 4σ is significantly larger than that of $e^{-s|x_0|^2}$. Because the distributions are statistically close, the distinguisher D must succeed at distinguishing the sample from uniform with probability negligibly close to ϵ . Finally, we invoke the LWE assumption and claim that the same distinguishing advantage persists, even if we replace $1/2 \sum_{y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot e^{-s|y|^2}$ with a random string $g \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$. Here, we rely on the fact that the underlying LWE sample is, in some sense, independent of the auxiliary input handed to the distinguisher D . To show that this is the case, we need to argue that the reduction can generate the appropriate inputs to D on input A ; in particular it should be able to generate the auxiliary input Aux (which depends on a state $|k, y\rangle$), while simultaneously producing a Gaussian vector x_0 such that $A \cdot x_0 = y + 1 \pmod q$. Note that this seems to violate the SIS assumption, since the ability to produce both a superposition $|k, y\rangle$ of pre-images and a single pre-image x_0 would allow one to obtain a collision for A .

Invoking Gaussian-collapsing: To overcome this issue, we ask the reduction to generate the quantum auxiliary input in a different way; rather than computing Aux as a function of $|k, y\rangle$, we compute it as a function of $|x_0\rangle$, where x_0 results from collapsing the state $|k, y\rangle$ via a measurement in the computational basis. By invoking the Gaussian collapsing property [109], we can show that the auxiliary information computed using $|k, y\rangle$ is computationally indistinguishable from the auxiliary information computed using $|x_0\rangle$. Once we invoke the collapsed version $|k, y\rangle$, we can carry out the reduction and conclude that D can distinguish between the samples $1/2 \sum_{x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot x_0$ and $1/2 \sum_{u \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot u$, where u and A are random and x_0 is Gaussian, with advantage negligibly close to ϵ . Notice that D now resembles a so-called Goldreich-Levin distinguisher [71].

⁶Technically, D can distinguish between $1/2 \sum_{u \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot u + 1 \pmod q$ and $1/2 \sum_{u \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m} A \cdot u$ for a Gaussian error 1 . However, by defining a distinguisher D' that first shifts u by a Gaussian vector 1 and then runs D , we obtain the desired distinguisher.

Reduction to Goldreich-Levin Assuming the existence of a quantum Goldreich-Levin theorem for the field \mathbb{Z}_2 , one could then convert \mathcal{D} into an extractor that extracts x_0 with high probability. Prior to our work, a quantum Goldreich-Levin theorem was only known for \mathbb{Z}_2 [7, 54]. In particular, it is unclear how to extend prior work towards higher order fields because the interference pattern in the analysis of the quantum extractor does not seem to generalize beyond the case \mathbb{Z}_2 . Fortunately, we can rely on the classical Goldreich-Levin theorem for finite fields due to Dodis et al. [57], as well as recent work by Bitansky, Brakerski and Kalai. [32] which shows that a large class of classical reductions can be generically converted into a quantum reductions. This allows us to obtain the first quantum Goldreich-Levin theorem for large fields, which we prove in Section 5.3. Specifically, we can show that a distinguisher that, given auxiliary input Aux , can distinguish between $u \cdot x_0$ and $u \cdot A$ with advantage ϵ can be converted into a quantum extractor that can extract x_0 given Aux in time $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ with probability $1 - \epsilon$.

Incorporating the revoked register R : To complete the security proof behind our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme, we need to show something stronger, namely, we need to argue that the Goldreich-Levin extractor succeeds on input Aux even conditioned on the fact that R outputs $Valid$ when applied on a separate register (which may be entangled with Aux). We can consider two cases based on the security definition.

- ^ Revocation succeeds with probability negligibly close to 1: in this case, applying the revocation or not does not make a difference since the state before applying revocation is negligibly close (in trace distance) to the state after applying revocation. Thus, the analysis is essentially the same as the setting where we ignore the register R .
- ^ Revocation is only required to succeed with probability $1 - \epsilon$: in this case, we do not know how to formally prove that the extractor and R simultaneously succeed with probability $1 - \epsilon$. Thus, we state this as a conjecture (see Construction 1) and leave the investigation of this conjecture to future works.

Applications

We leverage our result of key-revocable Dual-Regev encryption to get key-revocable fully homomorphic encryption and revocable pseudorandom functions.

Key-Revocable Dual-Regev Fully Homomorphic Encryption. Our first application of our key-revocable public-key encryption concerns fully homomorphic encryption schemes. We extend our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme towards a (level-1) scheme in Construction 9 by using the DualGSW variant of the FHE scheme by Gentry, Sahai, and Waters [69, 99].

To encrypt a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ with respect to the public-key (A, y^0) , sample a matrix $S \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ together with a Gaussian error matrix $E \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and row vector $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, and output the ciphertext

$$CT = \begin{pmatrix} h_A^T S_i E_i \\ y^0 + S_i e \end{pmatrix} \cdot G^{-1} \pmod{\mathbb{Z}_q^{1 \times n, 1 \times n}}$$

Here, G is the gadget matrix which converts a binary vector into its field representation over \mathbb{Z}_q . As before, the decryption key consists of a Gaussian superposition of pre-images of y^0 .

Note that the DualGSW ciphertext can be thought of as a column-wise concatenation of many independent Dual-Regev ciphertexts. In Theorem 33, we prove the security of our construction by invoking the security of our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme.

Revocable Pseudorandom Functions. Our next focus is on leveraging the techniques behind key-revocable public-key encryption to obtain revocable pseudorandom functions. Recall that the revocation security of pseudorandom functions stipulates the following: any efficient adversary (after successfully revoking the state that enables it to evaluate pseudorandom functions) cannot distinguish whether it receives pseudorandom outputs on many challenge inputs versus strings picked uniformly at random with more than negligible advantage. An astute reader might notice that revocation security does not even imply the traditional pseudorandomness guarantee! Hence, we need to additionally impose the requirement that a revocable pseudorandom function should also satisfy the traditional pseudorandomness guarantee.

Towards realizing a construction satisfying our definitions, we consider the following template:

1. First show that there exists a δ -revocable pseudorandom function for $\delta = 1$. Here, δ -revocation security means the adversary receives δ many random inputs after revocation.
2. Next, we show that any δ -revocable pseudorandom function also satisfies the stronger notion of revocation security where there is no a priori bound on the number of challenge inputs received by the adversary.
3. Finally, we show that we can generically upgrade any revocable PRF in such a way that it also satisfies the traditional pseudorandomness property.

The second bullet is proven using a hybrid argument. The third bullet is realized by combining a revocable PRF with a post-quantum secure PRF (not necessarily satisfying revocation security).

Hence, we focus the rest of our attention on proving the first bullet.

1-revocation security We start with the following warmup construction. The secret key comprises of matrices $A = (S_{80} \dots S_{84})_{2^{\ell} \times 2^{\ell}}$, where $A = Z_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell}}^{\ell}$, $S_{8-12} Z_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell}}^{\ell}$ such that all S_{8-12} are sampled from some error distribution and the output of the pseudorandom function is denoted to be $b_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell} \times \frac{1}{4} S_{8-12} e}$, where e and $b_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell}}$ refers to a particular rounding operation modulo

In addition to handing out a regular PRF key r , we also need to generate a quantum key such that, given r and any input G we can efficiently compute $\text{PRF}^1: - \mathbb{G}$. Moreover, r can be revoked such that any efficient adversary after revocation loses the ability to evaluate the pseudorandom function. To enable the generation of r , we first modify the above construction. We generate $y \in \mathbb{Z}^{\ell}$ and include this as part of the key. The modified pseudorandom function, on input G outputs $b_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell} \times \frac{1}{4} S_{8-12} e}$. We denote $b_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell} \times \frac{1}{4} S_{8-12} e}$ by S_G and, with this new notation, the output of the pseudorandom function can be written as S_y .

With this modified construction, we now describe the elements as part of the quantum key

- For every $82 \in \frac{1}{4} \text{include } S_{8-A}, E_{8-1}$ in r , where $82 \in \frac{1}{4}$ and $1 \in \{0, 1\}$. We sample S_{8-1} and E_{8-1} from a discrete Gaussian distribution with appropriate standard deviation.
- Include $|j_k\rangle_i$ which, as defined in the key-revocable Dual-Regev construction, is a Gaussian superposition of short solutions mapping A to y .

To evaluate on an input G using r , compute S_{8-A}, E_{8-1} and then using the state $|j_k\rangle_i$, map this to S_{8-A}, E_{8-1} . Finally, perform the rounding operation to get the desired result.

Our goal is to show that after the adversary revokes, on input a challenge input G picked uniformly at random, it cannot predict whether it has received $b_{\mathbb{Z}^{\ell} \times \frac{1}{4} S_{8-12} e}$ or a uniformly random vector in \mathbb{Z}^{ℓ} .

Challenges in proving security We would like to argue that when the state $|j_k\rangle_i$ is revoked, the adversary loses its ability to evaluate the pseudorandom function. Unfortunately, this is not completely true. For all we know, the adversary could have computed the pseudorandom function on many inputs of its choice before the revocation phase and it could leverage this to break the security after revocation. For instance, suppose say the input is of $\frac{1}{4} \log_2$ then in this case, the adversary could evaluate the pseudorandom function on all possible inputs before revocation. After revocation, on any challenge input G , the adversary can then successfully predict whether it receives a pseudorandom output or a uniformly chosen random output. Indeed, a pseudorandom function with $\frac{1}{4} \log_2$ -length input is learnable and hence, there should be no hope of proving it to be key-revocable. This suggests that, at the very least, we need to explicitly incorporate the fact

that G is of length $1/\log_2 \epsilon$, and more importantly, should have enough entropy, in order to prove security.

Our insight Our insight is to reduce the security of revocable pseudorandom function to the security of key-revocable Dual-Regev public-key encryption. At a high level, our goal is to set up the parameters in such a way that the following holds:

- ^ $A^{-1}y^0$, defined above, is set to be the public key corresponding to the Dual-Regev public-key encryption scheme,
- ^ $\{k_i\}$, which is part of the pseudorandom function key, is set to be the decryption key of the Dual Regev scheme,
- ^ Suppose that the challenge ciphertext, denoted CT , comprises of two parts $CT_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$ and $CT_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$. Note that if $CT_1 = s^T A$ and $CT_2 = s^T y$, for some LWE secret vector s , then CT_1 can be mapped onto CT_2 using the stateful key $\{k_i\}$. We use CT_1 to set the challenge input x in such a way that CT_2 is the output of the pseudorandom function G . This implicitly resolves the entropy issue we discussed above; by the semantic security of Dual-Regev, there should be enough entropy in CT_1 which translates to the entropy in x .

It turns our goal is quite ambitious: in particular, it is unclear how to set up the parameters in such that the output of the pseudorandom function G is exactly CT_2 . Fortunately, this will not be a deterrent, we can set up the parameters such that the output is $CT_2 + u$, where u is a vector that is known to reduction.

Once we set up the parameters, we can then reduce the security of revocable pseudorandom functions to revocable Dual Regev.

Implementation details So far we established the proof template should work but the implementation details of the proof need to be fleshed out. Firstly, we set up the parameters in such a way that $\epsilon = 1/2^{\log_2(1/\epsilon)}$. This means that there is a bijective function mapping $\mathbb{Z}_q^m \times \mathbb{Z}_q^m \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^m \times \mathbb{Z}_q^m$. As a result, the quantum key can be alternately viewed as follows:

- ^ For every $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$, $g \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$, include $S_1^{18-90g} A, E_1^{18-90g}$ in r . We sample S_1^{18-90g} and E_1^{18-90g} from a discrete Gaussian with appropriate parameter σ .

Secure Software Leasing. Another primitive relevant to revocable cryptography is secure software leasing [17]. The notion of secure software leasing states that any program can be compiled into a functionally equivalent program, represented as a quantum state, in such a way that once the compiled program is returned back to the honest evaluation algorithm on the residual state cannot compute the original functionality. Key-revocable encryption can be viewed as secure software leasing for decryption algorithms. However, unlike secure software leasing, key-revocable encryption satisfies a much stronger security guarantee, where there is no restriction on the adversary to run honestly after returning back the software. Secure leasing for different functionalities, namely, point functions [52, 43], evasive functions [17, 90] and pseudorandom functions [6] have been studied by recent works.

Encryption Schemes with Revocable Ciphertexts. Unruh [127] proposed a (private-key) quantum timed-release encryption scheme that is revocable, i.e., it allows a user to return the ciphertext of a quantum timed-release encryption scheme, thereby losing all access to the data. Unruh's scheme uses conjugate coding [132, 29] and relies on the monogamy of entanglement in order to guarantee that revocation necessarily erases information about the plaintext. Broadbent and Islam [40] introduced the notion of certified deletion and constructed a private-key quantum encryption scheme with the aforementioned feature which is inspired by the quantum key distribution protocol [29, 122]. In contrast with Unruh's [127] notion of revocable quantum ciphertexts which are eventually returned and verified, Broadbent and Islam [40] consider certificates which are entirely classical. Moreover, the security definition requires that, once the certificate is successfully verified, the plaintext remains hidden even if the secret key is later revealed.

Using a hybrid encryption scheme, Hiroka, Morimae, Nishimaki, and Yamakawa [83] extended the scheme in [41] to both public-key and attribute-based encryption with certified deletion via receiver non-committing encryption [87, 45]. As a complementary result, the authors also gave a public-key encryption scheme with certified deletion which is publicly verifiable assuming the existence of one-shot signatures and extractable witness encryption. Bartusek and Khurana [23] revisited the notion of certified deletion and presented a unified approach for how to generically convert any public-key, attribute-based, fully-homomorphic, timed-release or witness encryption scheme into an equivalent quantum encryption scheme with certified deletion. In particular, they considered a stronger notion called certified everlasting security which allows the adversary to be computationally unbounded once a valid deletion certificate is submitted.

⁸According to the terminology of [17], this refers to finite term secure software leasing.

⁹This notion is incomparable with another related notion called unclonable encryption [41, 15, 18], which informally guarantees that it should be infeasible to clone quantum ciphertexts without losing information about the encrypted message.

5.2 Quantum Discrete Gaussian Sampling for Arbitrary Lattices

In this section, we review some basic facts about Gaussian superpositions and present quantum discrete Gaussian sampling which is used to revoke the decryption keys for our schemes.

Gaussian Superpositions

In this section, we review some basic facts about Gaussian superpositions. Given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $q \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n < 2n$ and $\frac{p}{8} < \gamma < \frac{p}{2}$, we consider Gaussian superpositions over \mathbb{Z}_q^n of the form

$$|j_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |j_k + x\rangle.$$

Note that the state $|j_k\rangle$ is not normalized for convenience and ease of notation. The tail bound in Lemma 11 implies that (the normalized variant $|j_k\rangle$) is within negligible trace distance of a truncated discrete Gaussian superposition with support $\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n : \|x\|_2 \leq \frac{p}{2}\}$, where

$$|j_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |j_k + x\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |j_k + x\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f^{-1} x^0 |j_k + x\rangle.$$

In this work, we consider Gaussian superpositions with parameter $\frac{p}{8} < \gamma < \frac{p}{2}$ which can be efficiently implemented using standard quantum state preparation techniques; for example using quantum rejection sampling and the Grover-Rudolph algorithm [78, 112, 36, 38].

Gaussian coset states. Our key-revocable encryption schemes in Section 5.5 and Section 5.6 rely on Gaussian superpositions over \mathbb{Z}_q^n subject to a constraint of the form $Ax = y \pmod{q}$, for some matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and image $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. In Algorithm 3, we give a procedure called GenGauss that, on input A and $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, generates a Gaussian superposition state of the form

$$|j_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}_q^n|}} \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n \\ Ax=y}} r_f^{-1} x^0 |j_k + x\rangle$$

for some $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ which is statistically close to uniform whenever $n = \log q$ and $\frac{p}{8} < \gamma < \frac{p}{2}$.

Because $|j_k\rangle$ corresponds to a (truncated) Gaussian superposition over a particular lattice coset,

$$\frac{y}{q} \mathbb{Z}_q^n = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n : Ax = y \pmod{q}\}$$

of the \mathbb{Z}_q^n lattice $\frac{y}{q} \mathbb{Z}_q^n = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n : Ax = 0 \pmod{q}\}$, we refer to it as a Gaussian coset state

Finally, we recall an important property of Gaussian coset states.

Gaussian-collapsing hash functions. We recall the following variant of the Gaussian-collapsing property of the Ajtai hash function which we previously showed in Theorem 9.

Corollary 3 (Gaussian-collapsing property). Let $n = 2^N$ and p be a prime with $2 = \log p$ each parameterized by 2^N . Let $\rho \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, the following samples are computationally indistinguishable assuming the quantum hardness of decisional $\text{SVP}_{\rho, \sigma}$ for any noise ratio $U \in [0, 1]$ with relative noise magnitude $\epsilon = U \cdot 2^{1-\rho}$:

$$A \cdot Z_{\rho}^{\sigma} - \{j, k\}_i = \sum_{x \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}} \rho_f(x) |j, k\rangle_{i-1} - y \cdot Z_{\rho}^{\sigma} \quad \text{and} \quad A \cdot Z_{\rho}^{\sigma} - \{j, k\}_i - A \cdot x_0 \cdot Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}$$

where $\{j, k\}_i \in \text{GenGauss}^A - f^0$ and where $x_0 \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}$ is a discrete Gaussian error.

Algorithm: GenGauss

The state preparation procedure $\text{GenGauss}^A - f^0$ is defined as follows.

Algorithm 3: $\text{GenGauss}^A - f^0$

Input: Matrix $A \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}$ and parameter $\epsilon = 1/p^{\rho}$.

Output: Gaussian state $\{j, k\}_i$ and Z_{ρ}^{σ}

- 1 Prepare a Gaussian superposition in system i with parameter ρ :

$$|j, k\rangle_{i-1} = \sum_{x \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}} \rho_f(x) |j, k\rangle_{i-1} \cdot |0\rangle_i$$

- 2 Apply the unitary $U_A : |x\rangle_i |0\rangle_i \mapsto |x\rangle_i |A \cdot x \pmod{p}\rangle_i$ on systems i and $i+1$:

$$|j, k\rangle_{i-1} = \sum_{x \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}} \rho_f(x) |j, k\rangle_{i-1} \cdot |A \cdot x \pmod{p}\rangle_i$$

- 3 Measure system $i+1$ in the computational basis, resulting in the state

$$|j, k\rangle_{i-1} = \sum_{\substack{x \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma} \\ Ax=y}} \rho_f(x) |j, k\rangle_{i-1} \cdot |y\rangle_i$$

- 4 Output the state $\{j, k\}_i$ in system i and the outcome $y \in Z_{\rho}^{\sigma}$ in system $i+1$.
-

Algorithm: QSampGauss

Recall that, in Algorithm 3, we gave a procedure called $\text{Gauss}^A_{f^0}$ that prepares a Gaussian coset state $|j_k\rangle_i$, for a randomly generated $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$. In general, however, generating a specific Gaussian coset state on input y^0 requires a short trapdoor basis s_A for the matrix A . This task can be thought of as a quantum analogue of discrete Gaussian sampling problem [68], where the goal is to output a sample $x \in \mathbb{Z}^n$ such that $Ax = y^0 \pmod{q}$ on input A, y^0 and $\epsilon > 0$.

In Algorithm 4, we give a procedure called QSampGauss which, on input (A, y^0, f^0) generates a specific Gaussian coset state $|j_k\rangle_i$ of the form

$$|j_k\rangle_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=y^0}|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=y^0}} e^{2\pi i \langle x, j \rangle} |x\rangle_i$$

Our procedure QSampGauss in Algorithm 4 can be thought of as an explicit quantum reduction from $\text{ISIS}^<_{p, f^0}$ to $\text{LWE}^<_{p, f^0}$ which is inspired by the quantum reduction of Stehlé et al. [120] which reduces SIS to LWE. To obtain the aforementioned reduction, one simply needs to replace the procedure $\text{invert}^A_{y^0}$ in Step 4 in Algorithm 4 with a solver for the $\text{LWE}^<_{p, f^0}$ problem.

In Theorem 16, we prove the correctness of Algorithm 4. As a technical ingredient, we rely on a duality lemma from Lemma 20 that characterizes the Fourier transform of a Gaussian coset state in terms of its dual state. Note that $|j_k\rangle_i$ corresponds to a Gaussian superposition over a lattice coset,

$$|j_k\rangle_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{|\mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=y^0}|}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=y^0}} e^{2\pi i \langle x, j \rangle}$$

of the q -ary lattice $\mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=0} = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n : Ax = 0 \pmod{q}\}$. Here, the dual of $\mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=0}$ satisfies $\mathbb{Z}^n_{Ax=0}^\perp = \mathbb{Z}^n_{As=0}$, where $\mathbb{Z}^n_{As=0}$ corresponds to the lattice generated by A^\perp , i.e.,

$$\mathbb{Z}^n_{As=0} = \{z \in \mathbb{Z}^n : z = A^\perp s \pmod{q} \text{ for some } s \in \mathbb{Z}^m\}$$

The procedure $\text{QSampGauss}^A_{(y^0, f^0)}$ is defined as follows.

Algorithm 4: QSampGauss¹AA-y-f⁰

Input: Matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^{n \times n}$, a trapdoor t_A , an image $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n$ and parameter $\epsilon = \frac{1}{p} \frac{\mathcal{M}^n}{\mathcal{M}}$.

Output: Gaussian state $\rho_{y,i}$.

- 1 Prepare the following superposition with parameter ϵ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |r_{\mathcal{M}}^{-1} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} + y + i\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}}$$

- 2 Apply the generalized Pauli operator $Z_{\mathcal{M}}^{h_{s,y,i}}$ on the first register, resulting in the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |r_{\mathcal{M}}^{-1} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} + y + i\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}}$$

- 3 Apply the unitary $U_A : |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} |i\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} \mapsto |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} |r_{\mathcal{M}}^{-1} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} + i\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}}$, resulting in the state

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |r_{\mathcal{M}}^{-1} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} + h_{s,y,i} + i\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}}$$

- 4 Coherently run $\text{Invert}^1 A - t_A - y$ on the third register in order to uncompute the first and the second register, resulting in a state that is close in trace distance to the following state:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |j\rangle_{s\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mathcal{M}}} \sum_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} |r_{\mathcal{M}}^{-1} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} + h_{s,y,i}\rangle_{e\mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}}$$

- 5 Discard the first two registers. Apply the (inverse) quantum Fourier transform and output the resulting state.
-

Let us now prove the correctness of Algorithm 4.

Theorem 16 (Quantum Discrete Gaussian Sampling) Let $n = 2N$, \mathcal{M} be a prime with $\mathcal{M} \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ and $\frac{1}{\mathcal{M}} \sum_{j \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n} e^{\langle j, t_A \rangle} = 1$. Let $(A, t_A) \leftarrow \text{GenTrap}^1(1 - \epsilon, \mathcal{M})$ be sampled as in Theorem 2 and let $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{M}}^n$ be arbitrary. Then, with overwhelming probability, QSampGauss¹AA-y-f⁰ in

Theorem 17 ([32], adapted from Theorem 7.1) Let $2 \leq R$. Suppose that there exists a classical reduction from solving a non-interactive assumption \mathcal{Q} to solving a non-interactive assumption \mathcal{P} such that the following holds: if the \mathcal{P} -solver has advantage $\epsilon \geq 0$ then the \mathcal{Q} -solver has advantage 2ϵ (independent of ϵ) with running time $\text{poly}(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) \cdot Y^{-2}$.

Then, there exists a quantum reduction from solving \mathcal{Q} to quantumly solving \mathcal{P} such that the following holds: if the quantum \mathcal{P} -solver (with non-uniform quantum advice) has an advantage given by $\epsilon \geq 0$, then the \mathcal{Q} -solver has advantage 2ϵ (the same as the classical reduction) with running time $\text{poly}(\frac{1}{\epsilon}) \cdot Y^{-2}$.

Remark 18. We note that [32] consider a more general theorem where the advantage of the classical \mathcal{Q} -solver can depend on the advantage of the \mathcal{P} -solver. But in the case when the classical \mathcal{Q} -solver's advantage is independent of the \mathcal{P} -solver's advantage then, as reflected in the above theorem, it turns out the advantage of the quantum solver is the same as the classical solver.

Goldreich-Levin Theorems for Large Fields

The following result is implicit in the work of Dodis et al. [57].

Theorem 19 (Classical Goldreich-Levin Theorem for Finite Fields, [57], Theorem 1.1) Let \mathbb{F} be a prime and $k \leq 2N$. Let $S = \{x \in \mathbb{F}^k : |x| \leq g\}$ be a subset of \mathbb{F}^k , for some $g \geq 0$. Let $f : \mathbb{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ be any (possibly randomized) function. Suppose there exists a distinguisher \mathcal{D} that runs in time $\text{poly}(N)$ and has the property that

$$\left| \Pr_{x \in S} [\mathcal{D}(x, \text{aux}) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in S} [\mathcal{D}(x, \text{aux}) = 1] \right| = \epsilon$$

Then, there exists a (classical) non-adaptive black-box extractor whose running time is given by $\text{poly}(N) \cdot \epsilon^{-1}$ and succeeds with probability at least

$$\Pr_{x \in S} [E(x, \text{aux}) = x] \geq \frac{\epsilon^3}{512 \cdot N^k}$$

Using the constructive post-quantum reduction from Theorem 17, we can convert Theorem 19 into a quantum Goldreich-Levin Theorem for finite fields, and obtain the following.

Theorem 20 (Quantum Goldreich-Levin Theorem for Large Fields) Let \mathbb{F} be a prime and $k \leq 2N$. Let $S = \{x \in \mathbb{F}^k : |x| \leq g\}$ be a subset of \mathbb{F}^k , for some $g \geq 0$. Let $\rho : L^1(\mathbb{F}^k) \rightarrow L^1(\mathbb{F}^k)$ be any CPTP map with auxiliary system \mathcal{H}_{aux} . Suppose there exists a quantum distinguisher \mathcal{D} that runs in time $\text{poly}(N)$ and has the property that

$$\left| \Pr_{x \in S} [\mathcal{D}(x, \text{aux}) = 1] - \Pr_{x \in S} [\mathcal{D}(x, \text{aux}) = 1] \right| = \epsilon$$

Then, there exists a quantum extractor E whose running time is given by $|E^0| = \text{poly}(\lambda)$ and that succeeds with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$.

$$\Pr_{E, \text{aux}} \left[|E(x; \text{aux})| \leq \epsilon \right] \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

Proof. The proof follows immediately by combining Theorem 19 and Theorem 17. \square

5.4 Definition: Key-Revocable Public-Key Encryption

Let us now give a formal definition of key-revocable public-key encryption schemes.

Definition 39 (Key-Revocable Public-Key Encryption) A key-revocable public-key encryption scheme consists of efficient algorithms $\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke}$, where Enc is a PPT algorithm and $\text{KeyGen}, \text{Dec}$ and Revoke are QPT algorithms defined as follows:

- $\hat{\text{KeyGen}}^{\lambda, 1-\epsilon}$: given as input a security parameter λ , output a public key pk , a master secret key msk and a quantum decryption key sk .
- $\hat{\text{Enc}}^{\lambda, \epsilon}$: given a public key pk and plaintext G , output a ciphertext CT .
- $\hat{\text{Dec}}^{\lambda, \epsilon}$: given a decryption key sk and ciphertext CT , output a message G .
- $\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{\lambda, \epsilon}$: given as input a master secret key msk , a public key pk and quantum state ρ , output Valid or Invalid .

Correctness of Decryption. For every G , the following holds:

$$\Pr_{G, \text{KeyGen}} \left[\text{Dec}^{\lambda, \epsilon}(sk, \text{Enc}^{\lambda, \epsilon}(pk, G)) = G \right] \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

where ϵ is a negligible function.

Correctness of Revocation. The following holds:

$$\Pr_{\text{KeyGen}} \left[\text{Revoke}^{\lambda, \epsilon}(msk, pk) = \text{Valid} \right] \geq 1 - \epsilon$$

where ϵ is a negligible function.

Remark 21. Using the Almost As Good As New Lemma (Lemma 1), the procedure can easily be purified to obtain another quantum circuit Dec such that $\text{Dec}^{\lambda, \epsilon}(sk, CT)$ yields G with probability at least $1 - \epsilon$ and, moreover, CT is an encryption of G and $kr_{sk}^0 = r_{sk} k_{tr}^0$, where ϵ is another negligible function.

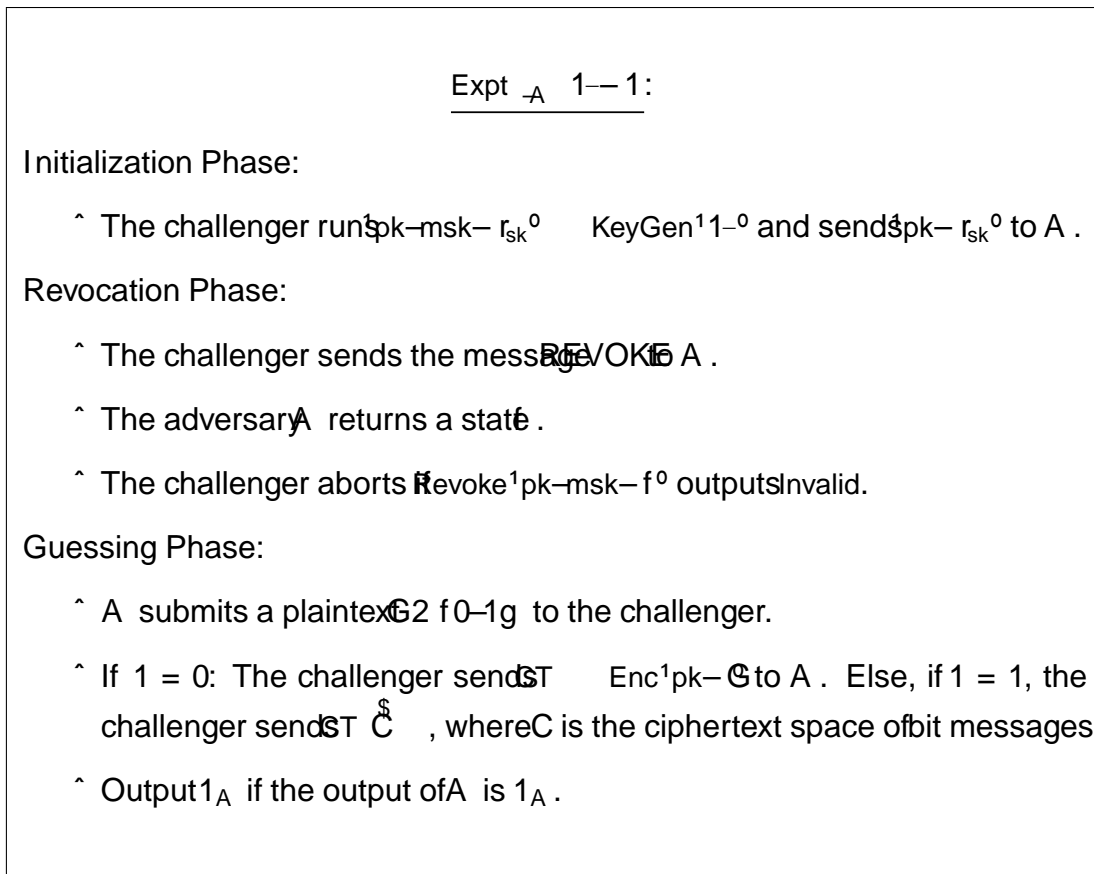


Figure 5.1: Security Experiment.

Security Definition

Our security definition for key-revocable public-key encryption is as follows.

Definition 40. A key-revocable public-key encryption scheme $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke})$ is $1/n$ -secure if, for every QPT adversary A with

$$\Pr \llbracket \text{Invalid} \rrbracket_{\text{Expt}_A^{1-1}} \leq \frac{1}{4} \cdot \epsilon_{1-0}^0$$

for $1 \in \{0, 1\}$, it holds that

$$\Pr [1]_{\text{Expt}_A^{1-0}} \leq \Pr [1]_{\text{Expt}_A^{1-1}} + \epsilon_{1-0}^0$$

where Expt_A^{1-1} is as defined in Figure 5.1. If $\epsilon_{1-0}^0 = 1 - \epsilon \cdot \text{poly}(\epsilon)$ and $\epsilon_{1-0}^0 = \text{negl}(\epsilon)$, we simply say the key-revocable public-key encryption scheme is secure.

Remark 22. Our security definition is similar to the one proposed by Agrawal et al. [8] in the context of public-key encryption with secure leasing.

Key-Revocable Public-Key Fully Homomorphic Encryption

A key-revocable public-key fully homomorphic encryption scheme defined for a class of functions \mathcal{F} , in addition to $(\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke})$, consists of the following PPT algorithm:

$\hat{\text{Eval}}^{pk, \mathcal{G}}$: on input a public key pk , function $f \in \mathcal{F}$, ciphertext CT , outputs another ciphertext CT' .

Remark 23. Sometimes we allow KeyGen to additionally take as input different parameters associated with the implementations of the functions in \mathcal{F} . For example, we allow KeyGen to take as input a parameter t in such a way that all the parameters in the system depend on t and moreover, the homomorphic evaluation is only supported on circuits of depth at most t .

Correctness of Evaluation and Decryption. For every $f \in \mathcal{F}$ with ℓ -bit inputs, every $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1-\ell, g)$, the following holds:

$$\Pr \left[\text{Dec}(r_{sk}, \text{CT}') = f(a) \right] = 1 - \epsilon_{\ell}$$

$\text{CT}' = \hat{\text{Eval}}^{pk, \mathcal{G}}(\text{CT}, f)$

where ϵ_{ℓ} is a negligible function.

Correctness of Revocation. Defined as before.

Security. Defined as before (Definition 40).

5.5 Key-Revocable Dual-Regev Encryption

In this section, we present the first construction of key-revocable public-key encryption from standard assumptions. Our construction involves making the Dual Regev public-key encryption of Gentry, Peikert and Vaikuntanathan [68] key revocable.

Construction

We define our Dual-Regev construction below.

Construction 8 (Key-Revocable Dual-Regev Encryption) Let $\ell = 2N$ be the security parameter and $\ell < 2N$. Let $q \geq 2$ be a prime and let $(u, v, f, j, 0)$ be parameters. The key-revocable public-key scheme $\text{RevDual} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke})$ consists of the following PPT algorithms:

KeyGen¹⁻⁰ : sample $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and generate a Gaussian superposition $|k_y\rangle$ with

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{q}} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n} r_f \cdot x \cdot |x\rangle$$

for some $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. Output $pk = (A, y)$, $jski = |k_y\rangle$ and $msk = td_A$.

Enc^{1-pk} : to encrypt a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$, sample a random vector $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and errors $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and output the ciphertext pair

$$CT = (s^T A + e^T \pmod{q}, b + r^T y \pmod{q}) \in \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$$

Dec^{1jski} : to decrypt CT , apply the unitary $U : |x\rangle |0\rangle \mapsto |x\rangle |CT - x^T y\rangle$ on input $|k_y\rangle |0\rangle$, where $jski = |k_y\rangle$, and measure the second register in the computational basis. Output 0, if the measurement outcome is closer to b , and output 1, otherwise.

Revoke^{1msk-pk} : on input td_A and (A, y) , apply the measurement M_{k_y} onto the state $|k_y\rangle$ using the procedure $\text{SampGauss}^{A, td_A, y}$ in Algorithm 4. Output \perp , if the measurement is successful, and output 0 otherwise.

Correctness of Decryption. Follows from the correctness of Dual-Regev public-key encryption.

Correctness of Revocation.

Correctness of Revocation. This follows from Theorem 16.

Let us now prove the security of our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme in Construction 8. Our first result concerns $(1 - \text{negl}(\lambda))$ -security, i.e., we assume that revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability.

Theorem 24. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and q be a prime modulus with $q = 2^{\lambda}$ and $\lambda = \log q$ each parameterized by the security parameter $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\epsilon < \frac{1}{2}$ and let $U = \mathbb{Z}_q^{1-\epsilon}$ be noise ratios chosen such that $\epsilon U = 2^{\lambda-\epsilon}$ and $1 - U = 2^{\lambda-\epsilon} \epsilon$. Then, assuming the subexponential hardness of the $\text{LWE}_{q, U}^{\leq}$ and $\text{SIS}_{q, U}^{\leq}$ problems, the scheme $\text{RevDual} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke})$ in Construction 8 is $(1 - \text{negl}(\lambda))$ -secure key-revocable public-key encryption scheme according to Definition 40.

To prove the stronger variant of ϵ -negligible $1 - \epsilon$ -poly $1 - \epsilon$ -security, i.e., where we do not make any requirements about the success probability of revocation, we need to invoke [Conjecture 1](#).

Theorem 25. Let $n = 2^N$ and p be a prime modulus with $p = 2^{>1-\epsilon}$ and $\epsilon = 2^{-\log p}$ each parameterized by the security parameter $\epsilon \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\epsilon < \frac{1}{8}$ and let $U = \mathbb{Z}_{10^{-10}}$ be noise ratios chosen such that $U = 2^{>1-\epsilon}$ and $1 \cdot U = 2^{>1-\epsilon}$. Assuming [Construction 1](#), the scheme $\text{RevDual} = \text{KeyGen-Enc-Dec-Revoke}$ in [Construction 8](#) is a ϵ -negligible $1 - \epsilon$ -poly $1 - \epsilon$ -secure key-revocable public-key encryption scheme according to Definition 40.

Guide for proving [Theorem 24](#) and [Theorem 25](#).

- ^ First, we prove a technical lemma ([Lemma 28](#)) that helps us remove the condition that revocation succeeds when analyzing the advantage of a distinguisher. Our previous implementations which allow us to estimate the success probability of quantum programs.
- ^ The next step towards proving [Theorem 24](#) is a search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary input for the Dual-Regev scheme ([Theorem 30](#)). Here, we show how to extract a short vector mapping A to y from an efficient adversary who has a non-negligible distinguishing advantage at distinguishing Dual-Regev ciphertexts from uniform.
- ^ Next, we state the Simultaneous Dual-Regev Extraction conjecture in [Conjecture 1](#), which is a strengthening of our search-to-decision reduction in [Theorem 30](#). Informally, it says that extraction of a short vector mapping A to y succeeds, even if we apply revocation on a separate register. We prove that [Conjecture 1](#) holds assuming SIS in the special case when revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability. This is captured by [Theorem 31](#).
- ^ Next, we prove technical lemma which exploits the search-to-reduction to extract distinct short vectors mapping A to y . This is proven in [Section 5.5](#).
- ^ Finally, we put all the pieces together in [Section 5.5](#) and show how to use the result from [Section 5.5](#) in order to break the SIS assumption.

Threshold Implementations

In this section, we prove [Lemma 28](#). This is a key ingredient in the proof of our main theorem, i.e., our simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary information in [Conjecture 1](#).

First, we review some recent techniques that allow us to measure the success probability of programs. In the classical setting, this task is fairly straightforward: simply execute a given program on samples from a distribution, and check how many times the program succeeds.

Using standard concentration inequalities, one can then estimate the success probability to inverse polynomial precision. In the quantum realm, however, this task is non-trivial if the quantum program is run with respect to quantum auxiliary inputs.

Inspired by the work of Marriott and Watrous [100], Zhandry [138] introduced the notion of projective implementations which allow us to accomplish this task efficiently. Below, we introduce some relevant definitions and results from the original work of Zhandry [138], as well as subsequent follow-up works [6, 54, 18]. First, we discuss efficient measurement techniques for measuring the success probability of a quantum program. Next, we move on to efficient measurement techniques that allow us to obtain such estimates approximately.

Efficient measurements. Suppose we have quantum program, say consisting of a quantum circuit and some quantum auxiliary input, and we wish to estimate its success probability. A natural starting point is to consider a two-outcome POVM $P = \{P_0, P_1\}$ over the two outcomes 0 (success) and 1 (failure). Zhandry [138] showed that for any such P , there exists a natural projective measurement (called a projective implementation) such that the post-measurement state corresponds precisely to an eigenvector of P_0 . Moreover, there exists a projective measurement E that measures the success probability with respect to some auxiliary input state; specifically,

- E outputs a probability $\frac{1}{2} \pm \epsilon$ (i.e., a real number) from the set of eigenvalues of P_0 .
- The post-measurement state after obtaining outcome 0 corresponds to an eigenvector of P_0 with eigenvalue $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$; similarly, it is an eigenvector of P_1 with eigenvalue $\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon$.

The measurement E is projective in the following sense: whenever we apply the same measurement E on the post-measurement state, we obtain precisely the same outcome. The following theorem is implicit in [138, Lemma 1], but we rely on the presentation from [18, Theorem 2.5].

Theorem 26 (Projective implementation) Let $P = \{P_0, P_1\}$ be a two-outcome POVM and let D be the distribution over the eigenvalues of P_0 . Then, there exists a projective measurement $E = \{E_0, E_1\}$ with index set D such that: for every quantum state ρ where we let $\rho_i = \text{Tr}(\rho P_i)$ denote the sub-normalized post-measurement state after measuring ρ , it holds that

- For every $\lambda \in D$, the state ρ_λ is an eigenvector of P_0 with eigenvalue λ , and
- the probability of λ when measured with respect to E is equal to $\text{Tr}(\rho P_0) = \sum_{\lambda \in D} \text{Tr}(\rho_\lambda P_0)$.

Remark 27. Suppose that $P = \{P_0, P_1\}$ is a two-outcome POVM and that P_0 has an eigenbasis $\{k_j\}$ with associated eigenvalues λ_j . Because P_0 and P_1 commute, they share a common eigenbasis. In

this case, there exists a natural measurement that corresponds to a projective implementation of the POVM; namely, for any input ρ , which can express $\rho = \sum_j U_j \rho_j U_j^\dagger$, the measurement $E = \{E_j\}$ will result in outcome j and a leftover eigenstate ρ_j with probability $\text{tr}(\rho_j U_j^\dagger \rho U_j)$.

Next, we use a generalization of projective implementations introduced in [6]. Rather than estimating the success probability directly, we can instead measure whether it is above or below a certain threshold. This gives rise to the following notion of threshold implementations

Theorem 28 (Threshold implementation) Let $W \in [0, 1]$ be a parameter and let $P = \{P_0, P_1\}$ be a two-outcome POVM, where P_0 has an eigenbasis $\{|k\rangle\}$ with associated eigenvalues λ_k . Then, there exists a projective threshold implementation $\Pi_W^P = \{\Pi_W^0, \Pi_W^1\}$ such that

- $\hat{\Pi}_W^0$ projects a quantum state into the subspace spanned by $\{|k\rangle\}$ whose eigenvalues λ_k satisfy the property $\lambda_k \leq W$
- $\hat{\Pi}_W^1$ projects a quantum state into the subspace spanned by $\{|k\rangle\}$ whose eigenvalues λ_k satisfy the property $\lambda_k > W$.

The proof of the theorem above follows directly from Theorem 26 by considering the projective measurements $\Pi_W^0 = \sum_{\lambda_k \leq W} |k\rangle\langle k|$ and $\Pi_W^1 = 1 - \Pi_W^0 = \sum_{\lambda_k > W} |k\rangle\langle k|$.

Finally, we also use the following symmetric variant of threshold implementations which were considered in [18, Theorem 2.6]. Here, the projective measurement determines whether the success probability is either close to $\frac{1}{2}$ or far from $\frac{1}{2}$.

Theorem 29 (Symmetric threshold implementation) Let $W \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$ be a parameter and let $P = \{P_0, P_1\}$ be a two-outcome POVM, where P_0 has an eigenbasis $\{|k\rangle\}$ with associated eigenvalues λ_k . Then, there exists a projective threshold implementation $\Pi_W^P = \{\Pi_W^0, \Pi_W^1\}$ such that

- $\hat{\Pi}_W^0$ projects a quantum state into the subspace spanned by $\{|k\rangle\}$ whose eigenvalues λ_k satisfy the property $|\lambda_k - \frac{1}{2}| \leq W$
- $\hat{\Pi}_W^1$ projects a quantum state into the subspace spanned by $\{|k\rangle\}$ whose eigenvalues λ_k satisfy the property $|\lambda_k - \frac{1}{2}| > W$.

The proof of the theorem above follows directly from Theorem 26 by considering the projective measurements $\Pi_W^0 = \sum_{|\lambda_k - \frac{1}{2}| \leq W} |k\rangle\langle k|$ and $\Pi_W^1 = 1 - \Pi_W^0 = \sum_{|\lambda_k - \frac{1}{2}| > W} |k\rangle\langle k|$.

Efficient measurements. The quantum measurements we described above can, in general, not be implemented efficiently. However, Zhandry [138] showed that there exist so-called efficient approximate implementations which allow one to obtain approximate estimates of the success probability of a quantum program. In this section, we review some basic definitions and results that allow us to perform such measurements efficiently.

Definition 41 (Mixture of projective measurements) Let $P = \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\}_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}}$ be a collection of binary outcome projective measurements $P_{\mathcal{S}} = \{P_{\mathcal{S}}^0, P_{\mathcal{S}}^1\}$ over the same Hilbert space \mathcal{H} , and suppose that $P_{\mathcal{S}}^0$ corresponds to outcome 0 and $P_{\mathcal{S}}^1$ corresponds to outcome 1. Let \mathcal{D} be a distribution over the index set \mathcal{S} . Then, $P = \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\}_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}}$ is the following mixture of projective measurements:

$$P = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{D} = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\}$$

The following result is adapted from [138, Theorem 6.2] and [6, Corollary 1].

Lemma 26 (Approximate threshold implementation) Let $P = \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\}_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}}$ be a binary outcome POVM over Hilbert space \mathcal{H} that is a mixture of projective measurements over some distribution \mathcal{D} . Let $Y = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{Y_{\mathcal{S}}\}$. Then, there exists an efficient binary-outcome quantum algorithm $\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X}$ interpreted as the POVM element corresponding to outcome 1, such that the following holds:

- For all quantum states ρ , $\text{Tr}[\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X} \rho] \approx \text{Tr}[Y \rho]$.
- For all quantum states ρ , it holds that $\text{Tr}[\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X} \rho] \leq \text{Tr}[Y \rho] + \epsilon$, where ρ^0 is the post-measurement state which results from applying the measurement $\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X}$ to ρ .
- The expected running time to implement $\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X}$ is proportional to $\text{poly}(n) \cdot Y \log(1/\epsilon)$, the time it takes to implement Y , and the time it takes to sample from \mathcal{D} .

Finally, we use the following symmetric version of the approximate threshold implementation Lemma 26 which is a variant of [18, Theorem 2.8].

Lemma 27 (Symmetric approximate threshold implementation) Let $P = \{P_{\mathcal{S}}\}_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}}$ be a binary outcome POVM over Hilbert space \mathcal{H} that is a mixture of projective measurements over some distribution \mathcal{D} . Let $W = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{W_{\mathcal{S}}\}$ and $Y = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{Y_{\mathcal{S}}\}$, and let $X = \sum_{\mathcal{S} \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr_{\mathcal{S}} \{X_{\mathcal{S}}\}$. Let \mathcal{D} be a distribution. Then, there exists an efficient binary-outcome quantum algorithm $\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X}$ interpreted as the POVM element corresponding to outcome 1, such that the following holds:

- For all quantum states ρ , $\text{Tr}[\text{SAT}_{P, \mathcal{W}}^{n-X} \rho] \approx \text{Tr}[Y \rho]$.

- ^ For all quantum states ρ , it holds that $\text{Tr}[\rho \Pi_{W,2Y}^{1,P} \rho^{1/4}] \geq \frac{1}{2} \epsilon$, where ρ^0 is the post-measurement state which results from applying the measurement $\Pi_{W,2Y}^{1,P}$ to ρ .
- ^ The expected running time to implement $\text{SAT}_{P,W}^{n-X}$ is proportional to $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon) \log(1/\epsilon)$, the time it takes to implement $\Pi_{W,2Y}^{1,P}$, and the time it takes to sample from ρ .

Proof of Lemma 28. We are now ready to prove the main result of this subsection.

Lemma 28. Let $\epsilon \in (0, 1/2]$ be a parameter and let $\rho_{R,Aux}$ be a quantum state on systems R and Aux of at most $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ many qubits. Let ρ_0, ρ_1 be two efficiently samplable distributions with support \mathcal{X} . Let D be a QPT algorithm. Suppose that the following two properties hold:

- ^ A (possibly inefficient) two-outcome POVM $\{M_0, M_1\}$ succeeds on system R with probability at least

$$\text{Tr}[\rho_1 M_1] - \text{Tr}[\rho_0 M_1] \geq \frac{1}{\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)}$$

for some polynomial $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$.

- ^ the algorithm D succeeds at distinguishing ρ_0 from ρ_1 with advantage

$$\Pr[D(\rho_{R,Aux}^0) = 1] - \Pr[D(\rho_{R,Aux}^1) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)}$$

for some polynomial $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ conditioned on the measurement M_1 succeeding on register R .

Then, there exists a QPT algorithm D' and a polynomial $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$ such that D' succeeds at distinguishing ρ_0 and ρ_1 with advantage at least $\epsilon^{\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)}$ on the reduced system alone, i.e.,

$$\Pr[D'(\rho_{Aux}^0) = 1] - \Pr[D'(\rho_{Aux}^1) = 1] \geq \frac{1}{\text{poly}(1/\epsilon)}$$

where system Aux corresponds to the reduced state $\rho_{Aux}^i = \text{Tr}_R[\rho_{R,Aux}^i]$.

Proof. Consider the binary outcome POVM $\{M_0, M_1\}$ with $M_1 = \frac{1}{2}(\rho_0 + \rho_1) + \frac{1}{2}(\rho_1 - \rho_0)$ which is the following mixture of projective measurements such that

$$M_1 = \frac{1}{2}(\rho_0 + \rho_1) + \frac{1}{2}(\rho_1 - \rho_0)$$

where ρ_0, ρ_1 are mixtures of two-outcome POVMs $\{G_0, G_1\}$ that correspond to running D on samples G from ρ_0, ρ_1 and system Aux , and then measuring whether the output is 1, i.e.,

$$\rho_0 = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \Pr[G = 0] \rho_{Aux} \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_1 = \int_{\mathcal{X}} \Pr[G = 1] \rho_{Aux}$$

Let P have an eigenbasis $\{|j\rangle\}$ with eigenvalues λ_j . Without loss of generality we can assume that ρ_{-Aux} is a pure state $|\psi\rangle = \sum_j U_j |j\rangle$ in systems R and Aux . Moreover, we can write ρ_{-Aux} as

$$\rho_{-Aux} = \sum_j \lambda_j |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \sum_j U_j |j\rangle\langle j|.$$

Let $Y = 1 \cdot \lambda_j$, $X = 2 - \lambda_j$ and $W = 1 \cdot \lambda_j$ be parameters. Consider the following distinguisher D :

- ^ Run the efficient approximate threshold implementation $SATI_{P,1}^{n-X}$ from Lemma 27 on system Aux for the binary-outcome POVM given by $\{M_0, M_1\}$.
- ^ If the outcome of $SATI_{P,1}^{n-X}$ is 1, then run D on the post-measurement system Aux , and output whatever D outputs. Otherwise, output a random bit.

Let us now analyze the success probability of D . Because the two-outcome POVM succeeds on system R with probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$ and because D succeeds with advantage at least $\frac{1}{2}$ in system Aux conditioned on M outputting 1, we have that $|\psi\rangle$ has weight at least $\frac{1}{2}$ on eigenvectors with eigenvalues λ_j such that $\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}$. In other words,

$$\sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j U_j^2 \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

Therefore, the probability that $SATI_{P,1}^{n-X}$ outputs 1 on system Aux is at least

$$\text{Tr} \left[SATI_{P,1}^{n-X} \rho_{-Aux} \right] \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j.$$

Moreover, the post-measurement state in system Aux after getting outcome 1 has weight $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j$ on eigenvectors $|j\rangle$ such that $\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, with probability at least $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j$, D has an advantage of at least $\frac{1}{2}$ at outputting the correct bit when run on the collapsed post-measurement system Aux .

However, if the measurement $SATI_{P,1}^{n-X}$ on system Aux fails and outputs 0, then D succeeds with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, with overwhelming probability, D has advantage at least

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \text{Pr} [D^1 G_{-Aux} = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \\ &= \left| \text{Pr} [D^1 G_{-Aux} = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j U_j^2 \\ &= \text{Tr} \left[SATI_{P,1}^{n-X} \rho_{-Aux} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j U_j^2 \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{2}} \lambda_j \geq \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, we remark that the running time of the distinguisher D is proportional to the running time of D and $\text{poly}(1/\epsilon) \cdot \log(1/\epsilon) \cdot \chi^0$, and hence it is efficient. \square

Simultaneous Search-to-Decision Reduction with Quantum Auxiliary Input

Our first result concerns distinguishers with quantum auxiliary input that can distinguish between Dual-Regev samples and uniformly random samples with high probability. In Theorem 30, we give a search-to-decision reduction: we show that such distinguishers can be converted into a quantum extractor that can obtain a Dual-Regev secret key with overwhelming probability. We then state a strengthening of this extraction property (which we call Simultaneous Dual-Regev Extraction) in Conjecture 1. Informally, this property states that extraction is possible even if additionally require that a revocation procedure succeeds on a separate register.

While we do not know how to prove Construction 1 under standard assumptions, we prove that Simultaneous Dual-Regev Extraction holds assuming LWE/SIS in the special case when revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability. This is captured by Theorem 31.

We first show the following result.

Theorem 30 (Search-to-Decision Reduction with Quantum Auxiliary Input) Let $n = 2N$ and q be a prime modulus with $q = 2^{\lambda}$ and let $\epsilon = 2^{-\lambda}$ each parameterized by the security parameter $\lambda \geq 2N$. Let $\delta < \epsilon$ and let $U, V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be noise ratios with $\|U\| = 2^{\lambda}$ and $\|V\| = 2^{\lambda}$. Let $A = \{A_{A,y} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\}$ be any non-uniform quantum algorithm consisting of a family of polynomial-sized quantum circuits

$$(A_{A,y} : L^1_H \leq H_{\epsilon} \cdot L^1_H \cdot H_{aux}^0) \quad A_{Z_{\epsilon}} \leq \epsilon \cdot Z_{\epsilon}$$

and polynomial-sized advice states $\{D^1_H\}$ which are independent of A . Then, assuming the quantum hardness of the LWE assumption, the following holds for every QPT distinguisher D . Suppose that there exists a function $\eta = 1/\text{poly}(\lambda)$ such that

$$|\Pr_{A,y} [D(\text{SearchToDecisionExp}_{A,D}^{A,y})] - \Pr_{A,y} [D(\text{SearchToDecisionExp}_{A,D}^{A,y})] | = \eta$$

Then, there exists a quantum extractor E that takes as input A, y and system R_{Aux} of the state $\rho_{A,y}$ and outputs a short vector in the coset $\mathbb{Z}_{\epsilon} \cdot A^{-1} \cdot y$ in time $\text{poly}(\lambda)$ such that

$$\Pr_{A,y} \Pr_{R_{Aux}} [E(A,y,R_{Aux}) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\epsilon} \cdot A^{-1} \cdot y] \geq 1 - \text{negl}(\lambda) : \Pr_{A,y} [E(A,y,R_{Aux}) \in \mathbb{Z}_{\epsilon} \cdot A^{-1} \cdot y] \geq 1 - \text{poly}(\lambda)^{-1}$$

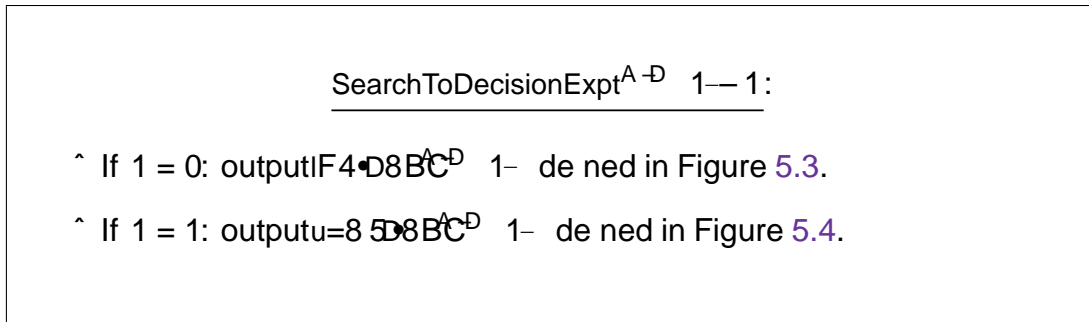


Figure 5.2: The experiment $\mathcal{F}_{4-D8BC}^{A-D} 1-1$.

Proof. Let $\kappa \geq N$ be the security parameter and let $\mathcal{A} = \{A_{-A-y} - a_0\}_{A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa}}$ be a non-uniform quantum algorithm. Suppose that \mathcal{D} is a QPT distinguisher with advantage $\epsilon = \text{poly}(\frac{1}{\kappa})$.

To prove the claim, we consider the following sequence of hybrid distributions.

H_0 : This is the distribution $\mathcal{F}_{4-D8BC}^{A-D} 1-$ in Figure 5.3.

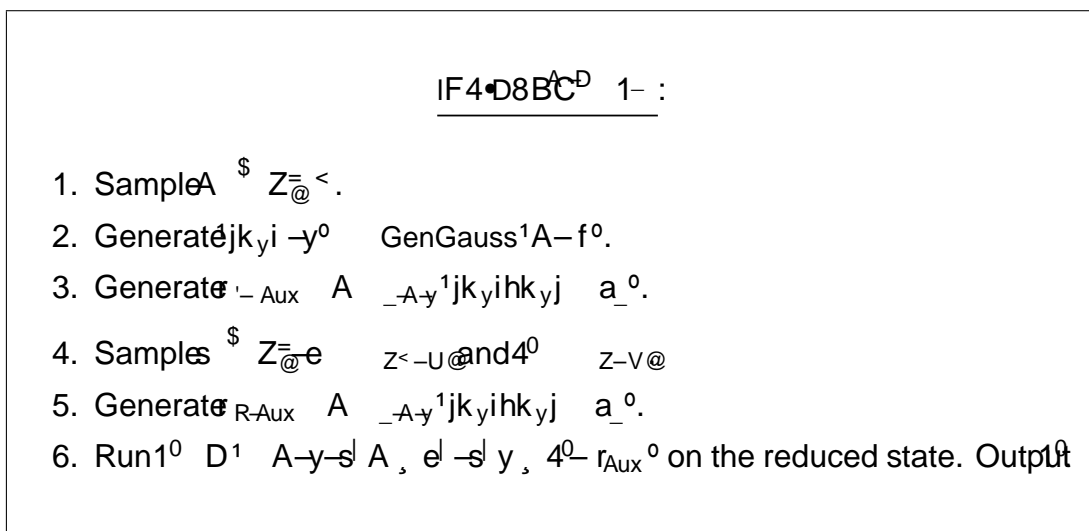


Figure 5.3: The distribution $\mathcal{F}_{4-D8BC}^{A-D} 1-$.

H_1 : This is the following distribution:

1. Sample a random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa}$.
2. Sample $\{Z_{@}^e\}_{e \in \mathbb{Z}_q}$ $Z_{-U@}$ and $Z_{-V@}$.
3. **Sample a Gaussian vector $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\kappa}$ and let $y = A \cdot x_0 \pmod{\mathbb{Z}_q}$.**
4. Run $A_{-A-y} \{j_k y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_q} a_0$ to generate a state r_{Aux} in systems \mathcal{R} and aux .

5. Run the distinguisher $D^1_{A-y-s} | A, e | -s | y, 4^0 - r_{aux}^0$ on the reduced state τ_{aux} .

H_2 : This is the following distribution:

1. Sample a uniformly random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$.
2. Sample $e \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and $v \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$. Let $u = A^T v + e$.
3. Sample a Gaussian vector $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and let $y = Ax_0 + u \pmod q$.
4. Run $A_{-A}^{-1} | x_0 | h_{x_0} | a_0$ to generate a state τ_{aux} in systems \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{A} .
5. Run the distinguisher $D^1_{A-y-u} | x_0, 4^0 - r_{aux}^0$ on the reduced state τ_{aux} .

H_3 : This is the following distribution:

1. Sample a uniformly random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$.
2. Sample $u \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and $v \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$.
3. Sample a Gaussian vector $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and let $y = Ax_0 + u \pmod q$.
4. Run $A_{-A}^{-1} | x_0 | h_{x_0} | a_0$ to generate a state τ_{aux} in systems \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{A} .
5. Run the distinguisher $D^1_{A-y-u} | x_0, 4^0 - r_{aux}^0$ on the reduced state τ_{aux} .

H_4 : This is the following distribution:

1. Sample a uniformly random matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$.
2. Sample $u \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and $A' \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times n}$.
3. Sample a Gaussian vector $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ and let $y = Ax_0 + u \pmod q$.
4. Run $A_{-A}^{-1} | x_0 | h_{x_0} | a_0$ to generate a state τ_{aux} in systems \mathcal{R} and \mathcal{A} .
5. Run the distinguisher $D^1_{A-y-u} | A' - r_{aux}^0$ on the reduced state τ_{aux} .

H_5 : This is the distribution $\mathcal{H}_5 = \mathcal{H}_4 \circ \mathcal{A}^D$ in Figure 5.4.

We now show the following:

Claim 10. Assuming $\mathcal{H}_0 \approx \mathcal{H}_1$, the hybrids H_0 and H_1 are computationally indistinguishable,

$$H_0 \approx H_1$$

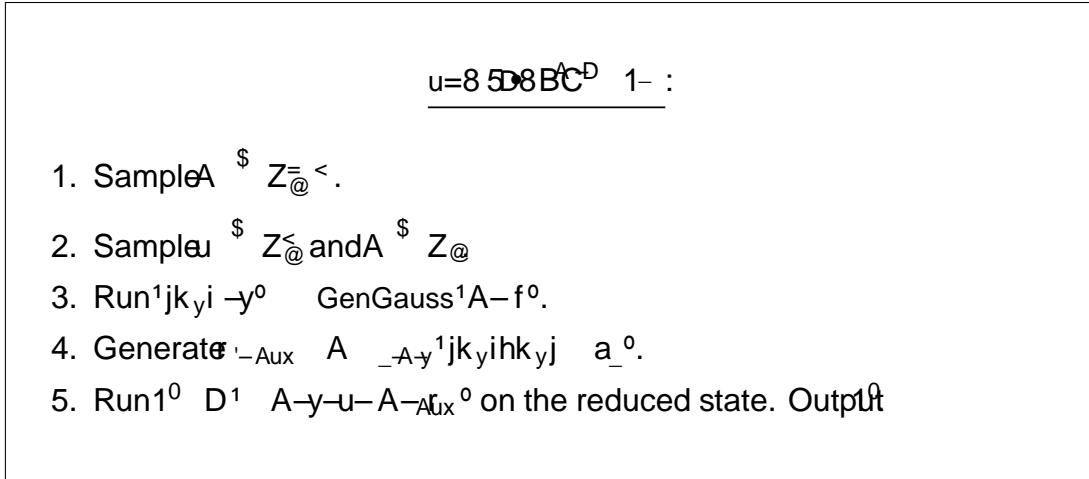


Figure 5.4: The distribution $u=8 \text{ } 5 \text{ } 8 \text{ } BC^D \text{ } 1- .$

Proof. Here, we invoke the Gaussian-collapsing property in Corollary 3 which states that the following samples are indistinguishable under $\text{LWE}_{\text{ } - \text{ } @ \text{ } - \text{ } U \text{ } @}^{\leq}$

$$A \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} - j \text{ } k \text{ } y \text{ } i = \begin{matrix} \tilde{O} \\ r \text{ } f \text{ } 1 \text{ } x^0 \text{ } j \text{ } x \text{ } i \text{ } - \text{ } y \text{ } 2 \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} \\ \text{ } 2 \text{ } A \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} - j \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } i \text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } 2 \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} \\ \text{ } x \text{ } 2 \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} \\ \text{ } A \text{ } x = y \end{matrix}$$

where $1 \text{ } j \text{ } k \text{ } y \text{ } i \text{ } - \text{ } y^0 \text{ } \text{GenGauss} \text{ } 1 \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } f^0$ and where $x_0 \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq} - \frac{f}{2}$ is a sample from the discrete Gaussian distribution. Because $A \text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } y$ is a family of efficient quantum algorithms, this implies that

$$A \text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } y \text{ } 1 \text{ } j \text{ } k \text{ } y \text{ } i \text{ } h \text{ } k \text{ } y \text{ } j \text{ } a \text{ } - \text{ } ^0 \text{ } 2 \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } y \text{ } 1 \text{ } j \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } i \text{ } h \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } j \text{ } a \text{ } - \text{ } ^0 -$$

for any polynomial-sized advice state $2 \text{ } D^1 \text{ } H \text{ } - \text{ } ^0$ which is independent of A . □

Claim 11. Hybrids H_1 and H_2 are statistically indistinguishable. In other words,

$$H_1 \text{ } B \text{ } H_2 \bullet$$

Proof. Here, we invoke the noise flooding property in Lemma 15 to argue that $x_0 \text{ } 4^0$ holds with overwhelming probability for our choice of parameters. Therefore, the distributions H_1 and H_2 are computationally indistinguishable. □

Claim 12. Assuming $\text{LWE}_{\text{ } - \text{ } @ \text{ } - \text{ } U \text{ } @}^{\leq}$, the hybrids H_2 and H_3 are computationally indistinguishable,

$$H_2 \text{ } 2 \text{ } H_3 \bullet$$

Proof. This follows from the $\text{LWE}_{\text{ } - \text{ } @ \text{ } - \text{ } U \text{ } @}^{\leq}$ assumption since the reduction can sample $Z_{@}^{\leq} - \frac{f}{2}$ itself and generate $\text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } u \text{ } x \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } A \text{ } - \text{ } y \text{ } 1 \text{ } j \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } i \text{ } h \text{ } x \text{ } 0 \text{ } j \text{ } a \text{ } - \text{ } ^0$ on input $A \text{ } 2 \text{ } Z_{@}^{\leq}$ and $a \text{ } - \text{ } .$ □

Finally, we show the following:

Claim 13. Assuming $\text{WE}_{\mathbb{Z}_p}^{\leq}$, the hybrids H_4 and H_5 are computationally indistinguishable,

$$H_4 \approx H_5$$

Proof. Here, we invoke the Gaussian-collapsing property in Corollary 3 again. □

Recall that H_0 and H_5 can be distinguished with probability $\epsilon = 1 - \text{poly}^{-1}$. We proved that the hybrids H_0 and H_3 are computationally indistinguishable and moreover, hybrids H_3 and H_5 are computationally indistinguishable. As a consequence, it holds that hybrids H_3 and H_4 can be distinguished with probability at least $\epsilon - \text{negl}^{-1}$.

We leverage this to obtain a Goldreich-Levin reduction. Consider the following distinguisher.

$D_{A-y-u-E-r}$

Input: $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\leq}, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p, u \in \mathbb{Z}_p, E \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $r \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell_{\text{Aux}}}$.

Output: A bit $\{0, 1\}$.

Procedure:

1. Sample $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$.
2. Output $\mathbb{1}_{D_{A-y-u-E-r}(x_0, r)}$.

Figure 5.5: The distinguisher $D_{A-y-u-E-r}$

Note that $A \cdot x_0 \pmod p$ is uniform whenever $A \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\leq}$ and $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Therefore, our previous argument shows that there exists a negligible function ϵ such that:

$$\left| \Pr_{x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p} [D_{A-y-u-E-r}(x_0, r_{\text{aux}}) = 1] - \Pr_{x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p} [D_{A-y-u-E-r}(x_0, r_{\text{aux}}) = 1] \right| \leq \epsilon$$

From Theorem 20, it follows that there exists a Goldreich-Levin extractor E running in time $|E^0| = \text{poly}(\lambda)$ that outputs a short vector in \mathbb{F}_2^{λ} with probability at least

$$\Pr_{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda}} \left[\exists y \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} : \langle E(x), y \rangle = 1 \right] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

Assuming the WE assumption, we can invoke the Gaussian-collapsing property in Corollary 3 once again which implies that the quantum extractor satisfies

$$\Pr_{x \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda}} \left[\exists y \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} : \langle E(x), y \rangle = 1 \right] \geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

This proves the claim. □

Next, we give a strengthening of our result in Theorem 30 and state a simultaneous search-to-decision reduction with quantum auxiliary input which holds even if additionally require that a revocation procedure succeeds on a separate register.

To formalize the notion that revocation is applied on a separate register, we introduce the following procedure called the `Revoke` which is defined below.

We use the following conjecture. We refer the reader to the introduction for an informal explanation of the conjecture below.

Conjecture 1 (Simultaneous Dual-Regev Extraction (SDRE)). Let $\lambda = 2^N$ be the security parameter. There exist parameters $(\epsilon, \delta, \gamma)$ where ϵ is a prime modulus with $\epsilon = 2^{\lambda^{\epsilon}}$, $\delta = \log \epsilon$, $\gamma = \frac{\delta}{8}$, $U = \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda}$ with $V \cdot U = 2^{\lambda^{\delta}}$, and $1 \cdot U = 2^{\lambda^{\delta}}$, such that the following holds: Let $A = \{A_{x,y} : \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} \times \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2\}$ be any non-uniform quantum algorithm consisting of a family of polynomial-sized quantum circuits

$$(A_{x,y} : \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} \times \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2) \quad A_{x,y} = \text{GenGauss}(\lambda, \epsilon)$$

and polynomial-sized advice states $|s\rangle \in \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda}$ which are independent of x, y . Then, the following holds for every QPT distinguisher D . Suppose there exists a function $\chi : \mathbb{F}_2^{\lambda} \rightarrow \mathbb{F}_2$ such that

$$\left| \Pr_{x,y} [D(A_{x,y}, |s\rangle) = \chi(x)] - \Pr_{x,y} [D(A_{x,y}, |s\rangle) = \chi(y)] \right| = \epsilon$$

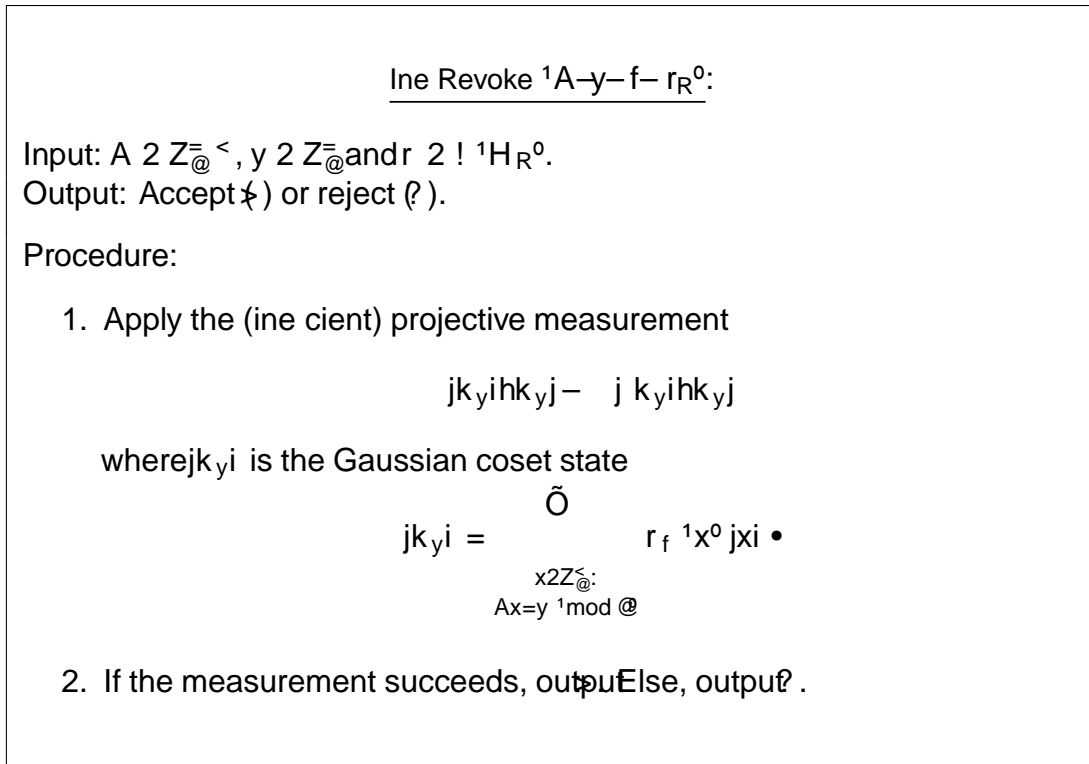


Figure 5.6: The procedure Ine Revoke $1A-y-f-r_R^0$.

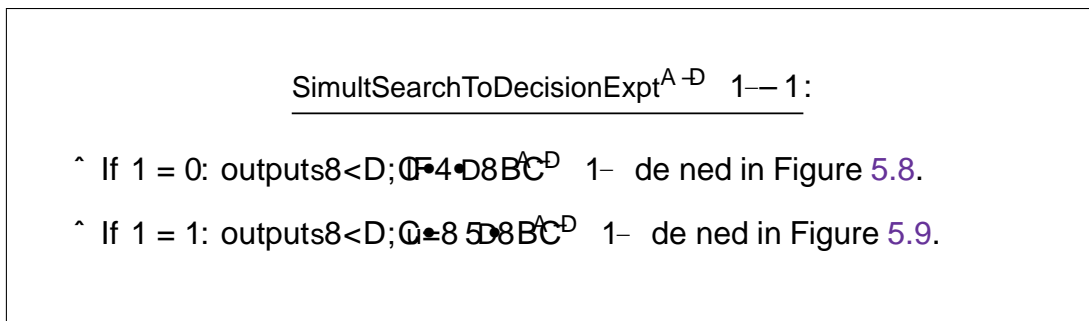


Figure 5.7: The experiment SimultSearchToDecisionExpt $^{A-D} 1-1$.

Then, there exists a quantum extractor that takes as input A, y and system Aux of the state ρ_{R-Aux} and outputs a short vector in the coset $\mathbb{Z}_q^{\times \ell} A^0$ in time $\text{poly}(\ell, \log q)$ such that

$$\Pr_{\substack{\text{Ine Revoke } 1A-y-f-R^0 \Rightarrow \\ E^{1A-y-Aux} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times \ell} A^0 \setminus B < 10^{-f} \frac{p}{2} : \rho_{R-Aux} \in \text{GenGauss}^{1A-f^0} \text{poly}(\ell, \log q)}} = 1 - \epsilon$$

Towards a proof of the conjecture. We now give a proof of Simultaneous Dual-Regev Extraction (Construction 1) in the special case when revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability.

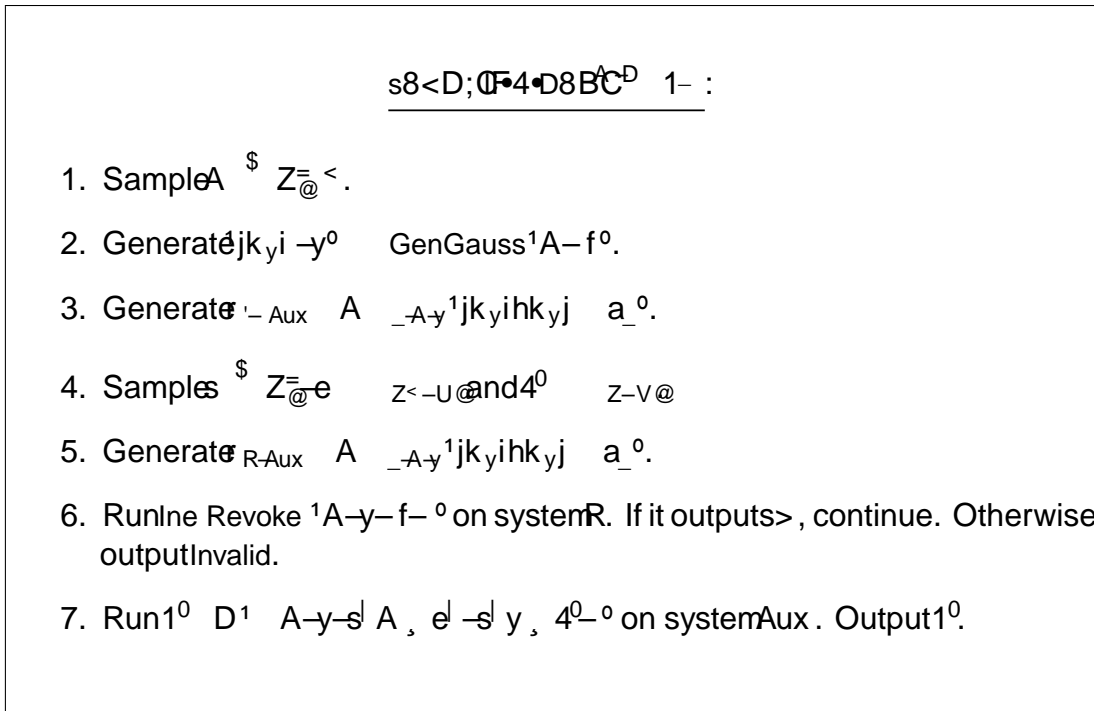


Figure 5.8: The distribution $s_{8 < D; \mathbb{F}_4 \cdot D_{8BC}^{A \cdot D} 1 - :$

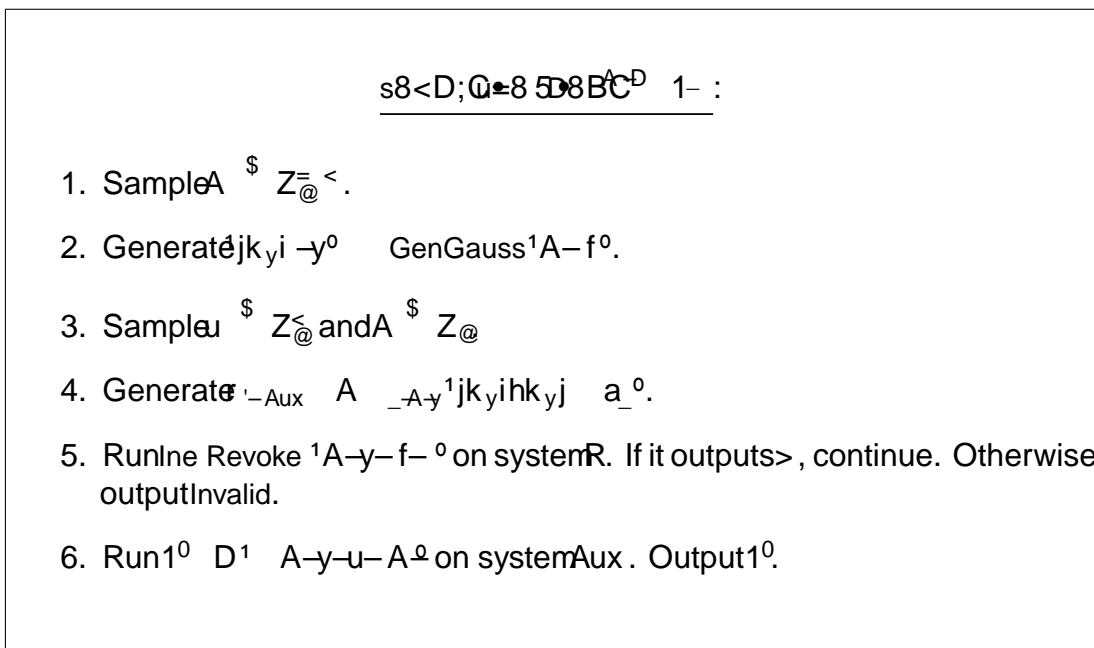


Figure 5.9: The distribution $s_{8 < D; \mathbb{F}_8 \cdot D_{8BC}^{A \cdot D} 1 - :$

Theorem 31. Let $n = 2^N$. Let $@$ be a prime with $@ = 2^{n-1} + 1$, $n = \log @$, $@ \mid 2^n - 1$, and let $U = \mathbb{Z}_@^{10-1}$ with $V \cdot U = \mathbb{Z}_@^{2^{n-1}}$ with $1 \cdot U = \mathbb{Z}_@^{2^{n-1}}$. Let $A = f^1(A, \text{Aux}, a^0)_{\mathbb{Z}_@^{2N}}$ be any

non-uniform quantum algorithm consisting of a family of polynomial-sized quantum circuits

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} A_{-A,y} : L^1 H_{\leq} H_{-}^0 \parallel L^1 H_{-} \cdot H_{aux}^0 \\ A^2 Z_{\leq} < -y 2 Z_{\leq} \end{array} \right)$$

and polynomial-sized advice states $D^1 H_{-}^0$ which are independent of ϵ such that

$$\Pr \left[\text{Ine Revoke}^1 A-y-f-r_{R^0} = > : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} = 1 \right] = 1 - \epsilon^1_{-0}$$

for some negligible function ϵ^1_{-0} . Then, assuming the quantum hardness of $L^1 H_{\leq} H_{-}^0$ assumption, the following holds for every QPT distinguisher D . Suppose that there exists a function $\gamma^1_{-0} = 1 \cdot \text{poly}^1_{-0}$ such that

$$\left| \Pr \left[1 \text{ SimultSearchToDecisionExpt}^{A-D} 11-0^0 \right] - \Pr \left[1 \text{ SimultSearchToDecisionExpt}^{A-D} 11-1^0 \right] \right| = \gamma^1_{-0}$$

Then, there exists a quantum extractor E that takes as input A, y and system Aux of the state R_{Aux} and outputs a short vector in the coset $V^1 A^0$ in time $\text{poly}^1_{-0} \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right)$ such that

$$\Pr \left[\text{Ine Revoke}^1 A-y-f-R^0 = > : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} \in E^1 A-y-Aux^0 \cdot V^1 A^0 \setminus B < 10^{-f} \frac{\epsilon}{2} \right] = \gamma^1_{-0}$$

Proof. By assumption, there exists an adversary $Adv^1 A-D^0$ such that $Adv^1 A-D^0 = \gamma^1_{-0}$, where

$$\text{Adv}^1 A-D^0 = \left| \Pr \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Ine Revoke}^1 A-y-f-R^0 = > \\ D^1 A-y-s^1 A, e^1-s^1 y, 4^0 Aux^0 = 1 \end{array} : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < -s^{\$} Z_{\leq} \\ e^{\$} Z_{\leq} - U^{\$} Z_{\leq} - V^{\$} \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} \right] - \Pr \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Ine Revoke}^1 A-y-f-R^0 = > \\ D^1 A-y-u-A_{Aux}^0 = 1 \end{array} : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < \\ u^{\$} Z_{\leq} - A^{\$} Z_{\leq} \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} \right] \right|$$

We can now invoke Lemma 28 to argue that there exists a distinguisher D (that internally runs D) and succeeds on the reduced system alone, i.e.

$$\left| \Pr \left[D^1 A-y-s^1 A, e^1-s^1 y, 4^0 r_{Aux}^0 = 1 : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < -s^{\$} Z_{\leq} \\ e^{\$} Z_{\leq} - U^{\$} Z_{\leq} - V^{\$} \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} \right] - \Pr \left[D^1 A-y-u-A_{Aux}^0 = 1 : \begin{array}{c} A^{\$} Z_{\leq} < \\ u^{\$} Z_{\leq} - A^{\$} Z_{\leq} \\ \text{GenGauss}^1 A-f^0 \\ r_{R-Aux} A_{-A-y}^1 j_{k_y} i_{h_{k_y}} a_{-}^0 \end{array} \right] \right| = \gamma^1_{-0}$$

for some $Y = 1 \cdot \text{poly}^1_{\epsilon}$. In other words, the QPT algorithm D can successfully predict whether it has received a Dual-Regev sample or a uniformly random sample. Therefore, we can now invoke Theorem 30 to argue there exists an extractor that takes as input A, y and system Aux of the state r_{R-Aux} and outputs a short vector in the coset $Y \cdot A^0$ in time poly^1_{ϵ} such that

$$\Pr_{r_{R-Aux}} \left[\exists x \in Y \cdot A^0 \setminus B : \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle_{A^0} \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$$

Recall also that, by assumption, revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability, i.e.,

$$\Pr_{r_{R-Aux}} \left[\text{Ine Revoke } (A, y, f, r_R^0) = 1 \right] = 1 - \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$$

Using Bonferroni's inequality, we can argue that

$$\Pr_{r_{R-Aux}} \left[\text{Ine Revoke } (A, y, f, r_R^0) = 1 \wedge \exists x \in Y \cdot A^0 \setminus B : \langle x, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle_{A^0} \right] \geq 1 - \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon}$$

This proves the claim. □

Distinct Pair Extraction

The following lemma allows us to analyze the probability of simultaneously extracting two distinct preimages in terms of the success probability of revocation and the success probability of extracting a preimage from the adversary's state.

Lemma 29 (Distinct pair extraction) Let $r \in D^1(H_1, H_2)$ be an any density matrix, for some Hilbert spaces H_1 and H_2 . Let $|j_k\rangle = \sum_{G \in S} U_{G,j} |G\rangle \in H_1$ be any state supported on a subset $S \subseteq X$, and let $\pi = |j_k\rangle\langle j_k|$ denote its associated projection. Let $\tilde{\pi}$ be the projector onto S with

$$\tilde{\pi} = \sum_{G \in S} |G\rangle\langle G|$$

Let $E : L^1(H_{\mathcal{H}}) \rightarrow L^1(H_{\mathcal{H}})$ be any CPTP map of the form

$$E(\rho) = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{S}} U_j \rho U_j^* + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{H}} \rho_{ii} \right) \quad (5.1)$$

for some isometry U_j . Consider the measurement specified by

$$\tilde{\mathcal{O}} = \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}: G \subseteq \mathcal{H}} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes \sum_{j \in G} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G}$$

Let $r_{\mathcal{H}} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}}$ denote the reduced state. Then, it holds that

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \leq \mathbb{1} + \max_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G|^2 \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} E(\rho) \quad (5.2)$$

where $r_{\mathcal{H}} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}}$ is a reduced state in system

Proof. Because the order in which we apply $\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}}$ does not matter, we have the inequality

$$\text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \leq \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \leq \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \quad (5.1)$$

Notice also that $\rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}}$ lies in the image of $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}$ with $\rho_{\mathcal{H}} = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{H}} |j\rangle\langle j|$, and thus

$$\rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} = \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \tilde{\mathcal{O}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \quad (5.2)$$

for some $f \in L^1(H_{\mathcal{H}})$. Putting everything together, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} &\leq \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} && \text{(using inequality (5.1))} \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \rho_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{H}} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes f && \text{(using equation (5.2))} \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}: G \subseteq \mathcal{H}} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes \sum_{j \in G} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G} \otimes f \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}: G \subseteq \mathcal{H}} \sum_{j \in G} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G} \otimes f \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes \sum_{j \in G} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G} \otimes f \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1} + \max_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G|^2 \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes \sum_{j \in G} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G} \otimes f \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1} + \max_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G|^2 \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} \sum_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G\rangle\langle G| \otimes \sum_{j \in G} |j\rangle\langle j| \otimes \rho_{jj} \otimes \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{H} \setminus G} \otimes f \\ &= \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} r_{\mathcal{H}} \otimes \mathbb{1} + \max_{G \in \mathcal{S}} |G|^2 \text{Tr}_{\mathcal{H}} E(\rho) \end{aligned}$$

This proves the claim. □

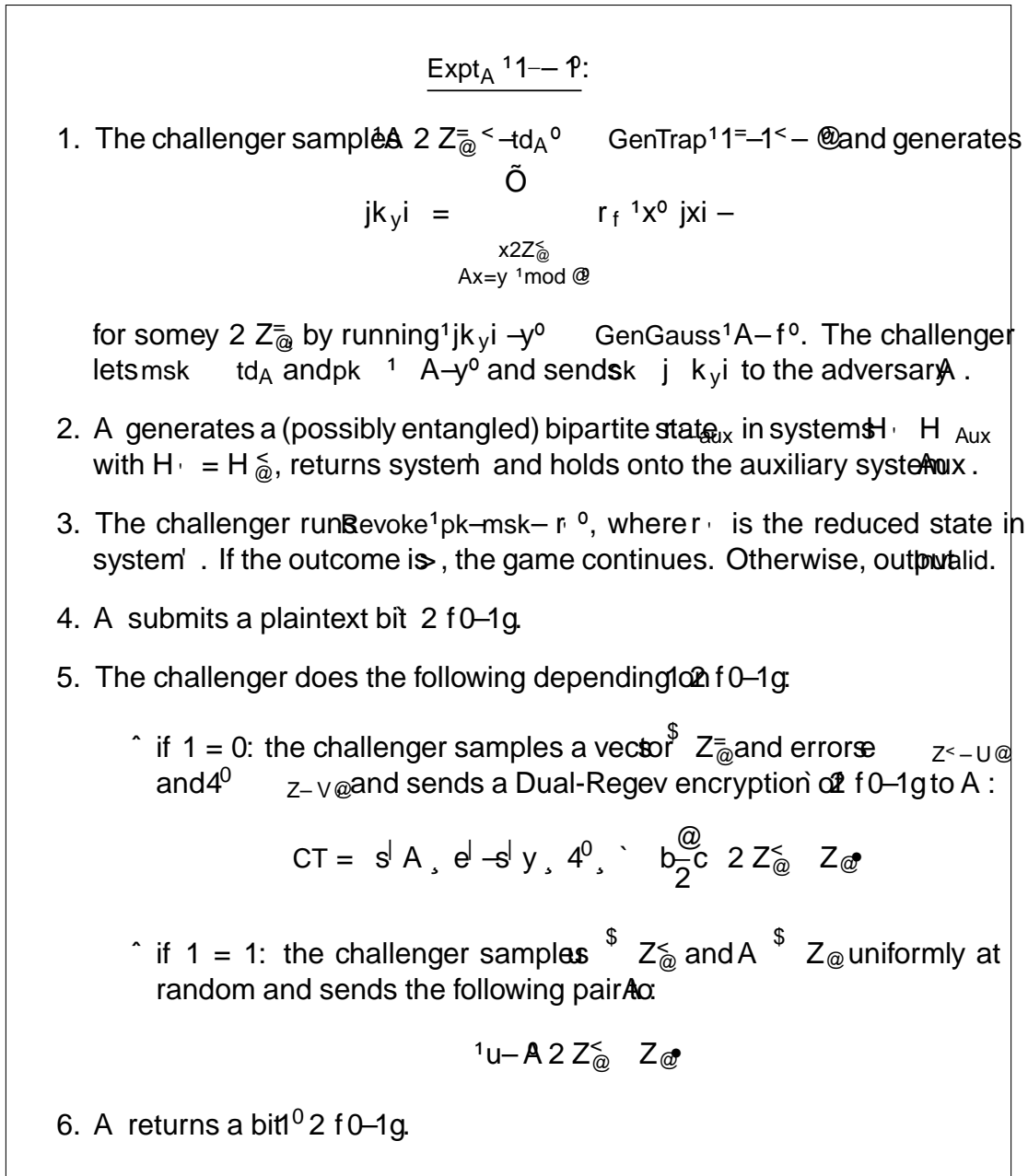


Figure 5.10: The key-revocable security experiment according to Definition 40.

Proof of Theorem 24

Proof. Let \mathcal{A} be a QPT adversary and suppose that

$$\Pr[1 \leftarrow \text{Expt}_A^{11-0}] - \Pr[1 \leftarrow \text{Expt}_A^{11-1}] = \epsilon$$

for some ϵ with respect to $\text{Expt}_A^{11} \leftarrow \mathcal{P}$ in Figure 5.10. We show that ϵ is negligible.

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that ϵ is non-negligible. Using the equivalence between

prediction advantage and distinguishing advantage, we can write

$$2 \Pr \{ \text{Expt}_A^{1-\epsilon} : 1 \} \geq \frac{1}{2} = \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

We show that we can use \mathcal{E} to break the $\text{SIS}_{\mathbb{Z}_q}^{<}$ problem. Without loss of generality, we assume that \mathcal{A} submits the plaintext $G = 0$. By the assumption that revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability and since $\epsilon = 1 \cdot \text{poly}(1/q)$, we can use Theorem 31 to argue that there exists a quantum Goldreich-Levin extractor \mathcal{E} that takes as input A, y and system \mathcal{A}_{Aux} of the state $\rho_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{Aux}}}$ and outputs a short vector in the coset $\mathcal{E}(A)$ in time $\text{poly}(1/q) = \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{2}$ such that

$$\Pr \{ \exists z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k : \langle A, z \rangle = y \} \geq \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

Here, we rely on the correctness of Trap in Theorem 2 and SampGauss in Theorem 16.

Consider the following procedure in Algorithm 5.

Algorithm 5: $\text{SIS_Solver}_{\mathbb{Z}_q}^{1A^0}$

Input: Matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times k}$.

Output: Vector $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$.

- 1 Generate a Gaussian state $\rho_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{Aux}}}$ with

$$\rho_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{Aux}}} = \frac{1}{|\mathbb{Z}_q^k|} \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k} |x\rangle\langle x|$$

$Ax = y \pmod q$

for some vector $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$

- 2 Run \mathcal{A} to generate a bipartite state $\rho_{\mathcal{A}_{\text{Aux}}}$ in systems $\mathcal{H}_R \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\text{aux}}$ with $\mathcal{H}_R = \mathbb{Z}_q^k$.
 - 3 Measure system \mathcal{R} in the computational basis, and let $k_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ denote the outcome.
 - 4 Run the quantum Goldreich-Levin extractor \mathcal{E} for $A - y - \rho_{\text{aux}}^{k_0}$ from Conjecture 1, where $\rho_{\text{aux}}^{k_0}$ is the reduced state in system \mathcal{H}_{aux} , and let $x_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^k$ denote the outcome.
 - 5 Output the vector $x = x_1 - k_0$.
-

To conclude the proof, we show that $\text{SIS_Solver}_{\mathbb{Z}_q}^{1A^0}$ in Algorithm 5 breaks the $\text{SIS}_{\mathbb{Z}_q}^{<}$ problem whenever $\epsilon = 1 \cdot \text{poly}(1/q)$. In order to guarantee that $\text{SIS_Solver}_{\mathbb{Z}_q}^{1A^0}$ is successful, we use the

Note that the associated (non-linear) inverse operation converts vectors $iz_{@}^{1}$ to their binary representation $if_{0-1}^{\#}$. In other words, we have that G^{-1} acts as the identity operator.

Construction

Let us now describe our key-revocable fully homomorphic encryption scheme.

Expt_A¹ - P:

1. The challenger samples $A \in Z_{@}^{n \times n}$ and $t \in Z_{@}^n$ from $\text{GenTrap}^{1,1}(\mathbb{Z}_{@})$ and generates $(pk, sk) = (\text{GenGauss}^{1,A}(t), t)$. The challenger lets $sk = t$ and $pk = A$ and sends (pk, sk) to the adversary A .
2. A generates a (possibly entangled) bipartite state $\rho_{S, Aux}$ in systems S and Aux with $H_S = H_{@}$, returns system Aux and holds onto the auxiliary system S .
3. The challenger runs $\text{Revoke}^{1,sk}(r)$, where r is the reduced state in system S . If the outcome is is , the game continues. Otherwise, output is \perp .
4. A submits a plaintext bit $z \in \{0,1\}$.
5. The challenger does the following depending on z :
 - $\hat{z} = 0$: The challenger samples a random matrix $S \in Z_{@}^{n \times n}$ and errors $E \in Z_{@}^n$ and row vector $e \in Z_{@}^n$ and outputs the ciphertext
$$CT = \frac{h_{A|S,E}}{y|S,e} \cdot G \in Z_{@}^{1 \times n}.$$
 - $\hat{z} = 1$: the challenger samples a matrix $U \in Z_{@}^{n \times n}$ and row vector $A \in Z_{@}^n$ uniformly at random, and sends the following
$$\frac{h_U}{r} \in Z_{@}^{1 \times n}.$$
6. A returns a bit $z' \in \{0,1\}$.

Figure 5.11: The key-revocable security experiment according to Definition 40.

Expt_A¹¹ - P:

1. The challenger samples $A \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and generates $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{GenTrap}(1^n, 1^q, A)$ and generates $(k, y) \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}(A, f^0)$. The challenger lets $msk = sk$ and $pk = A$ and sends (k, y) to the adversary A .
2. A generates a (possibly entangled) bipartite state $\rho_{H, H_{Aux}}$ with $H = H_A$, returns system H and holds onto the auxiliary system H_{Aux} .
3. The challenger runs $\text{Revoke}(msk, pk, r^0)$, where r^0 is the reduced state in system H . If the outcome is \perp , the game continues. Otherwise, output is invalid.
4. A submits a plaintext bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$.
5. The challenger does the following depending on b :
 - $\hat{b} = 0$: The challenger samples a random matrix $Z \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and errors $E \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and row vector $e \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{1 \times n}$ and outputs the ciphertext
$$CT = \frac{h_{A|S,E}}{y|S,e} \cdot G \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{1 \times n}.$$
 - $\hat{b} = 1$: the challenger samples a matrix $Z \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{n \times n}$ and row vector $A \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{1 \times n}$ uniformly at random, and sends the following
$$\frac{h_U}{r} \in \mathcal{Z}_q^{1 \times n}.$$
6. A returns a bit $b' \in \{0, 1\}$.

Figure 5.12: The key-revocable security experiment according to Definition 40.

Proof. Let A be a QPT adversary and suppose that

$$|\Pr[1 = \text{Expt}_A^{11-0^0}] - \Pr[1 = \text{Expt}_A^{11-1^0}]| = \epsilon$$

for some $\epsilon > 0$ with respect to $\text{Expt}_A^{11} - P$ in Figure 5.12. Note that the RevDualGSW ciphertext can (up to an additive shift) be thought of as a column-wise concatenation of many independent

ciphertexts of our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme in [Construction 8](#). Therefore, we can invoke [Theorem 24](#) in order to argue that ϵ is at most negligible.

□

Our second result concerns $\text{negl}^{\epsilon} \cdot \text{poly}^{\epsilon}$ -security, i.e., we do not make any requirements on the success probability of revocation. Here, we need to invoke [Conjecture 1](#).

Theorem 33. Let ℓ be an upper bound on the NAND-depth of the circuit which is to be evaluated. Let $n = 2^N$ and p be a prime modulus with $n = \ell \cdot \ell^{\epsilon}$, $p = 2^{\ell^{\epsilon}}$ and $\ell = \log p$ each parameterized by the security parameter ϵ . Let $\ell = \ell^{\epsilon}$, $\ell^{\epsilon} \log p$ be an integer. Let $\ell^{\epsilon} \log p < \ell^{\epsilon}$ and let $U = \ell^{\epsilon} \log p$ be parameters such that $\ell^{\epsilon} U = 2^{\ell^{\epsilon}}$ and $\ell^{\epsilon} U = 2^{\ell^{\epsilon}}$. Then, assuming [Conjecture 1](#), the scheme $\text{DualGSW} = \text{KeyGen} - \text{Enc} - \text{Dec} - \text{Eval} - \text{Revoke}^0$ in [Construction 9](#) is a $\text{negl}^{\epsilon} \cdot \text{poly}^{\epsilon}$ -secure key-revocable (leveled) fully homomorphic encryption scheme according to [Definition 40](#).

Proof. The proof is the same as in the theorem before, except that we invoke [Theorem 25](#) instead of [Theorem 24](#) in order to argue security. □

5.7 Revocable Pseudorandom Functions

In this section, we introduce the notion of key-revocable pseudorandom functions (or simply, called revocable) and present the first construction from (quantum hardness of) learning with errors.

Definition

Let us first recall the traditional notion of PRF security [\[73\]](#), defined as follows.

Definition 42 (Pseudorandom Function). Let $n = 2^N$ and $\ell^{\epsilon} \log p = \ell^{\epsilon}$ and $\ell^{\epsilon} \log p$ be polynomials. A (post-quantum) pseudorandom function PRF⁰ is a pair $\text{Gen} - \text{PRF}^0$ of PPT algorithms given by

$\text{Gen}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$: On input $1^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$, it outputs a key $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$.

$\text{PRF}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$: On input: $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$ and $G \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$, it outputs a value $H \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$.

with the property that, for any QPT distinguisher D , we have

$$\left| \Pr_{D} \left[\text{PRF}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}(k) = 1 \right] - \Pr_{D} \left[\text{PRF}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}(G) = 1 \right] \right| \leq \text{negl}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$$

where $\mathcal{F}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$ is the set of all functions with domain $\{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$ and range $\{0, 1\}^{\ell^{\epsilon} \log p}$.

We now present a formal definition of revocable pseudorandom functions below.

Definition 43 (Revocable Pseudorandom Function) Let $\lambda \in \mathbb{N}$ be the security parameter and let \mathcal{G} be a polynomial-time algorithm that on input 1^λ outputs a group (G, \mathcal{H}) where G is a cyclic group of order q and \mathcal{H} is a hash function. Let \mathcal{P} be a polynomial. A revocable pseudorandom function (PRF) is a scheme $(\text{Gen}, \text{PRF}, \text{Eval}, \text{Revoke})$ consisting of the following efficient algorithms:

- $\hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}$: on input the security parameter 1^λ , it outputs a PRF key: (k, σ) , a quantum state ρ , and a master secret key msk .
- $\hat{\text{PRF}}^{1-\lambda}$: on input a key (k, σ) and an input string $x \in G$, it outputs a value $\mathcal{H}(x)$. This is a deterministic algorithm.
- $\hat{\text{Eval}}^{1-\lambda}$: on input a state ρ and an input $x \in G$, it outputs a value $\mathcal{H}(x)$.
- $\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{1-\lambda}$: on input msk and a state ρ , it outputs Valid or Invalid.

We additionally require that the following holds:

Correctness. For each (k, σ, ρ, msk) in the support of $\hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}$ and for every $x \in G$:

$\hat{\text{PRF}}^{1-\lambda}(k, \sigma, x) = \hat{\text{Eval}}^{1-\lambda}(\rho, x)$ (Correctness of evaluation:)

$$\Pr_{(k, \sigma, \rho, msk) \leftarrow \hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}} [\hat{\text{PRF}}^{1-\lambda}(k, \sigma, x) \neq \hat{\text{Eval}}^{1-\lambda}(\rho, x)] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

$\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{1-\lambda}(msk, \rho) = \text{Valid}$ (Correctness of revocation:)

$$\Pr_{(k, \sigma, \rho, msk) \leftarrow \hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}} [\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{1-\lambda}(msk, \rho) \neq \text{Valid}] \leq \text{negl}(\lambda)$$

Security

We define revocable PRF security below.

Definition 44 (Revocable PRF Security) A revocable pseudorandom function (PRF) consisting of a tuple of QPT algorithms $(\text{Gen}, \text{PRF}, \text{Eval}, \text{Revoke})$ has $(\epsilon, \text{poly}(\lambda))$ -revocable PRF security if, for every QPT adversary \mathcal{A} with

$$\Pr_{(k, \sigma, \rho, msk) \leftarrow \hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}} [\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{1-\lambda}(msk, \rho) = \text{Invalid}] \leq \epsilon$$

for $x \in G$, it holds that

$$\Pr_{(k, \sigma, \rho, msk) \leftarrow \hat{\text{Gen}}^{1-\lambda}} [\hat{\text{PRF}}^{1-\lambda}(k, \sigma, x) \neq \hat{\text{Eval}}^{1-\lambda}(\rho, x)] \leq \epsilon$$

where $\text{Expt}_{\mathcal{A}, \text{PRF}}^{1-\lambda}$ is as defined in Figure 5.13. If $\epsilon = \text{poly}^{-1}(\lambda)$, we oftentimes drop ϵ and simply refer to it as PRF satisfies (ϵ) -revocable PRF security.

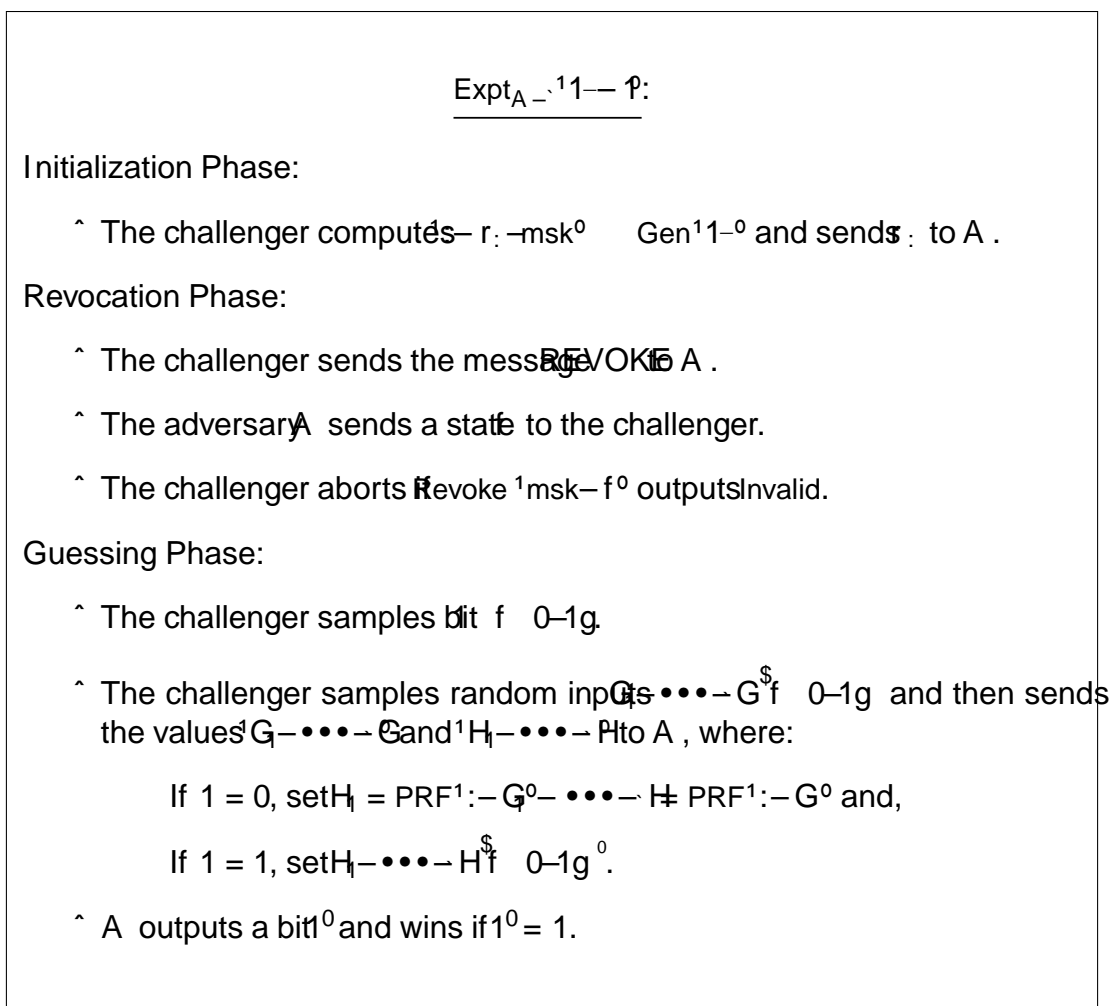


Figure 5.13: Revocable PRF security

From one-query to multi-query security. We show that proving security with respect to \mathcal{E}^1 is sufficient. That is, we show the following.

Claim 14. Suppose a PRF scheme $(\text{Gen}, \text{PRF}, \text{Eval}, \text{Revoke}^0)$ satisfies 1-revocable PRF security. Then, $r\text{PRF}$ also satisfies the stronger notion of (multi-query) revocable PRF security.

Proof. Let A be a QPT adversary that participating in the revocable PRF security experiment defined in Figure 5.13 and let $G_1, \dots, G_\ell \in \{0, 1\}^n$ denote the challenge input-output pairs, for some polynomial $\ell = \ell(n)$. In the following, we denote by the PRF key sampled using Gen by the challenger in Figure 5.13. We consider a sequence of hybrids defined as follows.

H_b for $b \in \{0, 1\}$. In this hybrid, H_1, \dots, H_ℓ are sampled uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^n$ and

H_0, \dots, H_8 are generated as follows: $H_0 = \text{PRF}^1: - G^0$ for $0 \leq 8$

We claim that A cannot distinguish between hybrids H_8 and H_{8-1} , for all $8 \geq 2 \gg \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ with more than negligible advantage. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that the claim is not true, and that A can distinguish H_8 and H_{8-1} , for some index $8 \geq 2 \gg \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ with advantage at least $\epsilon = 1 \cdot \text{poly}(1/\epsilon)$. We will now show that we can use the adversary A to break the 1-revocation security of PRF.

Consider a reduction B that does the following:

1. Receive the state σ from the challenger.
2. Sample G_1, \dots, G_8 uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^g$. Denote $r_1, \dots, r_8 = r$. Do the following for $9 = 8, 1, \dots, 1$: Eval $r_1, \dots, r_9 - G$ to obtain H_9 . Using the Almost As Good As New [3], recover r_9, r_8 , where r_9, r_8 is negligibly close to r in trace distance.
3. Forward the state σ, r_1, r_8 to A .
4. When the challenger submits the message M , forward the same message to A .
5. If A sends f , then forward the same state to the challenger.
6. If the revocation did not fail, the guessing phase begins. The challenger sends H . Then, sample G_1, \dots, G_8 uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^g$ and H_1, \dots, H_8 uniformly at random from $\{0, 1\}^g$. Set $G_9 = G$ and $H_9 = H$. Send $G_1, \dots, G_9 - H^0$ to A .
7. Output 1 , where 1 is the output of A .

From the quantum union bound (Lemma 2), the Almost As Good As New lemma (Lemma 1) and the correctness of PRF, it follows that $\text{TD}(r_1, \dots, r_8, r_9) \leq \text{negl}(1/\epsilon)$ and thus, the advantage of A when given r_1, \dots, r_8 instead of r is now at least $\epsilon - \text{negl}(1/\epsilon)$. Moreover, by the design of B , it follows that the success probability of B in breaking 1-revocation security of PRF is exactly the same as the success probability of A in breaking revocation security of PRF. This contradicts the fact that PRF satisfies 1-revocation security.

□

Remark 34. Our notion of revocable PRF security from Definition 44 does not directly imply traditional notion of PRF security from Definition 42. The reason is that the definition does not

¹⁰Technically, this depends on the correctness error and we start with A that is correct with probability negligibly close to 1.

¹¹Although any revocable PRF is a weak PRF. Recall that a weak PRF is one where the adversary receives as input $G_1, \dots, G_8 - H^0$, where G_i are picked uniformly at random. The goal of the adversary is to distinguish the two cases: all H_i are pseudorandom or H_i are picked uniformly at random.

preclude the possibility of there being an input (say an all zeroes string) on which PRF outputs itself (or the first bit of G if the output of PRF is a single bit).

Motivated by Theorem 34, we now introduce the following notion of strong PRF.

Definition 45 (Strong PRF). We say that a scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$ is a strong revocable pseudorandom function (or, strong PRF) if the following two properties hold:

1. $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$ satisfy revocable PRF security according to Definition 44, and
2. Gen-PRF^0 satisfy pqPRF security according to Definition 42.

Remark 35. When instantiating pseudorandom functions in the textbook construction of private-key encryption [72] from revocable pseudorandom functions, we immediately obtain a revocable private-key encryption scheme.

We show that the issue raised in Theorem 34 is not inherent. In fact, we give a simple generic transformation that allows us to obtain strong PRFs by making use of traditional pqPRFs.

Claim 15 (Generic Transformation for Strong PRFs). Let $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$ be a revocable PRF scheme which satisfies revocable PRF security, and let Gen-PRF^0 be a pqPRF. Then, the scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^1$ is a strong PRF which consists of the following algorithms:

- Gen^{11-0} : on input the security parameter $1-\epsilon$, first run $1-r: \text{msk}^0 \leftarrow \text{Gen}^{11-0}$ and then output $11-r: 0-1-r: 0-\text{msk}^0$, where $\overline{\text{Gen}}^{11-0}$ is a pqPRF key.
- $\text{PRF}^{11-r: 0-\mathcal{G}}$ on input a key $1-r: 0$ and string $G \in \{0,1\}^g$, output $\overline{\text{PRF}}^{1-\mathcal{G}} \text{PRF}^{1-r: 0-\mathcal{G}}$.
- $\text{Eval}^{11-r: 0-\mathcal{G}}$ on input $1-r: 0$ and $G \in \{0,1\}^g$, output $\overline{\text{PRF}}^{1-\mathcal{G}} \text{Eval}^{1-r: 0-\mathcal{G}}$.
- $\text{Revoke}^{1\text{msk}^{-1}-f: 0}$: on input a master secret key msk and a pair $1-r: 0$, first discard the key msk and then run $\text{Revoke}^{1\text{msk}-f: 0}$.

Proof. Let us first show that the scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^1$ maintains revocable PRF security. Suppose there exists a PT adversary A and a polynomial $\epsilon = \epsilon(1-\epsilon) \geq \epsilon$ such that

$$\Pr[1] \text{Expt}_{A, \cdot}^{11-0} - \Pr[1] \text{Expt}_{A, \cdot}^{11-1} = \epsilon$$

for some function $\epsilon(1-\epsilon) = \epsilon \cdot \text{poly}(1-\epsilon)$, and where $\text{Expt}_{A, \cdot}$ is the experiment from Figure 5.13 with respect to the scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^1$. We show that this implies the existence of a distinguisher D that breaks the revocable PRF security of the scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$.

The distinguisher D proceeds as follows:

1. D receives as input a quantum state ρ where $r, \text{msk} \leftarrow \text{Gen}^{1,0}$ is generated by the challenger. Then D generates a PRF key $K \leftarrow \overline{\text{Gen}}^{1,0}$ and sends (r, ρ) to A .
2. When A returns a state σ , D forwards it to the challenger as part of the revocation phase.
3. When D receives the challenge input (G, H) from the challenger D sends (G, H) to A .
4. When A outputs 1^0 , so does the distinguisher D .

Note that the simulated challenge distribution above precisely matches the challenge distribution from the experiment $\text{Exp}_{A, \rho}^{1,0}$ from Figure 5.13. Therefore, A succeeds with inverse polynomial advantage $\epsilon = 1/\text{poly}(n)$, so does D thereby breaking the revocable PRF security of the scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$. Consequently, $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$ does not satisfy revocable PRF security.

To see why Gen-PRF^0 does not satisfy PRF security according to Definition 42, we can follow a similar argument as above to break the PRF security of $\overline{\text{Gen-PRF}}^0$. Here, we rely on the fact that the keys $r, \text{msk} \leftarrow \text{Gen}^{1,0}$ and $K \leftarrow \overline{\text{Gen}}^{1,0}$ are sampled independently from another.

□

Remark 36. Previous works [54, 90] do not explicitly require in their definitions that either secure software leasing or copy-protection of pseudorandom functions must necessarily preserve the pseudorandomness property (although their constructions could still satisfy such a traditional pseudorandomness property).

Construction

We construct a PRF satisfying 1-revocation security (Definition 44).

Shift-Hiding Construction. We construct a shift-hiding function which is loosely inspired by shift-hiding shiftable functions introduced by Peikert and Shiehian [107].

Let $n < 2N$, $p \geq 2N$ be a modulus and let $\ell = \log p$. In the following, we consider matrix-valued functions $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$, where f is one of the following functions:

- $\hat{Z}: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$ which, on input $G \in \{0,1\}^n$, outputs an all zeroes matrix $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$, or:
- $\hat{A}: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$ which, on input $G \in \{0,1\}^n$, outputs $M \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$, where $A \in \{0,1\}^n$ and $G = A$ bindecomp $^1 M^0$, where $M \in \mathbb{Z}_p^{\ell \times \ell}$ and bindecomp $^1 \cdot^0$ takes as input a matrix and outputs a binary string that is obtained by concatenating the binary decompositions of all the elements in the matrix (in some order).

We show that there exist PPT algorithms KG-E^0 (formally defined in Construction 10) with the following properties:

- $\hat{\text{KG}}^{1^f-1^g-}(\mathcal{A})^0$: on input 1^f-1^g , a modulus $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$ and a function $f: \mathbb{Z}_n^f \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^g$, it outputs a pair of keys (K, B) .
- $\hat{\text{E}}^{1^f-1^g-}$: on input (K, B) , $A \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$, it outputs (S, E) , where $S \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$ and $E \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$, where $\|E_{jj}\| \leq 2f \log n$. Moreover, there is an efficient algorithm that recovers S given B and G .

We show that KG-E^0 satisfies a shift-hiding property namely, for any $A \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$,

$$f(z) = Az$$

for any (K, B) with $(K, B) \leftarrow \text{KG}^{1^f-1^g-}(\mathcal{A})^0$, where $A \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$, and $f: \mathbb{Z}_n^f \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^g$.

In the construction below, we consider a bijective function $f: \mathbb{Z}_n^f \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^g$.

Construction 10. Consider the PPT algorithms KG-E^0 defined as follows:

- $\hat{\text{KG}}^{1^f-1^g-}(\mathcal{A})^0$: on input 1^f-1^g , a modulus $n \in \mathbb{N}$, a matrix $A \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$ and function $f: \mathbb{Z}_n^f \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^g$, it outputs a pair of keys (K, B) generated as follows:

1. For every $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$ define $M_z^{1^f-1^g-}$ as follows:

If $z = 0$, then for every $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$ let

$$M_z^{1^f-1^g-} = 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_n^{f \times g}$$

If $z \neq 0$, then for every $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$ let

$$M_z^{1^f-1^g-} = \frac{1}{|z|} \begin{bmatrix} A \\ I_n \end{bmatrix}$$

2. For every $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$, compute:

$$S_z^{1^f-1^g-} = S_z^{1^f-1^g-} A, E_z^{1^f-1^g-}, M_z^{1^f-1^g-}$$

$$B_z^{1^f-1^g-} = \begin{bmatrix} S_z^{1^f-1^g-} \\ E_z^{1^f-1^g-} \end{bmatrix}$$

where for every $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^f$

$$S_z^{1^f-1^g-} = \begin{bmatrix} S_z^{1^f-1^g-} \\ E_z^{1^f-1^g-} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$3. \text{ Output?} = A_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g} \text{ and } B = B_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$$

Let $E_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$ on input z and $G_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$, proceed as follows:

1. Parse $z = A_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$
2. Output $G_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}(z)$

Claim 16 (Correctness) Let (K, G) be the pair of PPT algorithms in Construction 10. Let $z = B_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$. Then, the output of $E_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}(z)$ is of the form:

$$E_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}(z) = S_G A, E_G, G$$

where $S_G \in Z_{p_1}^*$ and $E_G \in Z_{p_1}^*$ with $|E_G| \leq 2f \log p_1$. Moreover, there is an efficient algorithm that recovers S_G given $z = B_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$.

Proof. Let $z = B_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$. Parse $z = A_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$ and $B = B_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g}$, where:

$$z = S_1^{18-9^2g} A, E_1^{18-9^2g}, M_1^{18-9^2g}$$

$$B = S_1^{18-9^2g} E_1^{18-9^2g} g$$

There are two cases to consider here:

Case 1 $z = z$: in this case $M_1^{18-9^2g} = 0$, for every $z \in Z_{p_1}^{18-9^2g}$. Thus, the following holds:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{O} \text{?} : G_{1, \dots, n}^{18-9^2g} &= \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{O} \\ \vdots \\ S_G^{18-9^2g} A \\ \vdots \\ E_G^{18-9^2g} \\ \vdots \\ M_G^{18-9^2g} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= S_G A, E_G, Z^1 G \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, we have that $|E_1^{18-9^2g}| \leq f$ and thus $|E_G| \leq 2f \log p_1$.

Case 2 = A:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{O} & \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} S_G A, E_G, \tilde{O} \\ & = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} S_G A, E_G, A^1 G^- \end{aligned}$$

where S_G and E_G are as defined above. The second equality holds because of the fact that \tilde{O} has the value 1 in the $(18-9\alpha)g$ position and zero, everywhere else. Thus, summing up all the $M_{G, 18-9\alpha}$ matrices results in the matrix M , where G^- is the binary decomposition of A .

Finally, it is clear that S_G can be efficiently recovered from B : and G □

Claim 17 (Shift-hiding property.) Assuming the quantum hardness of learning with errors, the pair (K, G^-) in Construction 10 has the property that

$$f(z) = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} A_g^{-1} f(z - g)$$

for any f with $\|f\|_2 \leq 1$ and $\|f\|_1 \leq \frac{1}{2}$, where $A = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} A_g^{-1}$, $A_g = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} A_g^{-1}$ and for any $z \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$.

Proof. For every $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$, let $M_g = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} A_g^{-1} I = \dots$. Then from the quantum hardness of learning with errors, the following holds for every $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$:

$$f(S_g^{-1} z, E_g^{-1} z) = \sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}} f(S_g^{-1} z, E_g^{-1} z, M_g^{-1} z)$$

Since S_g^{-1} and E_g^{-1} are sampled independently for every $g \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$ and $z \in \mathbb{Z}^{18-9\alpha}$, the proof of the claim follows. □

Remark 37. When consider the all-zeroes function, we drop the notation from the parameters. For instance, we denote f_z to be simply f .

Construction. We consider the following parameters which are relevant to our construction. Let $n < 2^N$ and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be a modulus with $m = 2^{N-1}$, and let $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2^{\log m}}$. Let f be a parameter with $\|f\|_2 \leq \frac{1}{2^{\log m}}$ and let δ be a sufficiently large rounding parameter with

$$\delta < \frac{1}{2^{\log m}} \frac{1}{2^{\log m}}$$

We describe our construction below.

Construction 11 (Revocable PRF scheme) Let $\kappa = 2N$ be the security parameter and $2N$. Let $\mathbb{Q} \geq 2$ be a prime and let $\gamma \geq 0$ be a parameter. Let KG-E^0 be the procedure in [Construction 10](#). Our revocable PRF scheme is defined as follows:

$\hat{\text{Gen}}^{1,0}$: This is the following key generation procedure:

1. Sample $A \leftarrow \text{td}_A^0$ and $\text{GenTrap}^{1,0} \leftarrow \mathbb{Q}^{\kappa \times \kappa}$.
2. Compute $Z \leftarrow \text{KG}^{1,0}(\text{Trap}^{1,0}, A)$, where $Z : \{0,1\}^{\kappa} \rightarrow \mathbb{Q}^{\kappa}$ is the such that $Z^T \mathbb{Q}$ outputs an all zero matrix for every $\mathbb{Q} \in \mathbb{Q}^{\kappa}$. Parse Z as $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$.
3. Generate a Gaussian superposition $|k_y\rangle \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}^{1,0}(A, z_y)$ with

$$|k_y\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sum_{x \in \mathbb{Q}^{\kappa}} \langle Ax, y \rangle}} \sum_{Ax=y} |x\rangle \cdot \langle Ax, y \rangle$$

Output: $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$, $r_i = \{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$ and $\text{msk} = \text{td}_A$.

$\hat{\text{PRF}}^{1,0}$: this is the following procedure:

1. Parse the key as a tuple $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$.
2. Output $S_{y,z}$. Here, $S_{y,z} \in \mathbb{Q}^{\kappa \times \kappa}$ is a matrix that can be efficiently recovered from $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$ as stated in [Claim 16](#).

$\hat{\text{Eval}}^{1,0}$: this is the following evaluation algorithm:

1. Parse $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$ as $\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]}$.
2. Compute $M_G \leftarrow E^{1,0}(\{z_i\}_{i \in [0, \kappa-1]})$.
3. Measure the register Aux of the state $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\kappa}} \sum_{j \in [0, \kappa-1]} |j\rangle_{\text{Aux}} \otimes |z_j\rangle$. Denote the resulting outcome to be z , where z is defined as follows:

$$z = \sum_{j \in [0, \kappa-1]} |j\rangle_{\text{Aux}} \langle z_j | M_G | z_j \rangle_{\text{Aux}}$$

4. Output z .

$\hat{\text{Revoke}}^{1,0}$: given as input the trapdoor td_A and msk , apply the projective measurement $\Pi_{k_y} = |k_y\rangle\langle k_y|$ onto the state $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\kappa}} \sum_{j \in [0, \kappa-1]} |j\rangle_{\text{Aux}} \otimes |z_j\rangle$ using the procedure $\text{SampGauss}^{1,0}(A, z_y)$ in [Algorithm 4](#). Output valid if the measurement is successful, and invalid otherwise.

Lemma 30. The above scheme satisfies correctness for our choice of parameters.

Proof. The correctness of revocation follows immediately from the correctness of GenGauss in Algorithm 4, which we showed in Theorem 16. Next, we show the correctness of evaluation. Let $\lambda_Z = \text{pk} - \text{SK}^0$. From Claim 16, we have for any $f \in \mathcal{F}$:

$$E^{\text{pk} - \mathcal{G}} = S_G A, E_G^{\text{pk} - \mathcal{G}}$$

where $S_G \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ and $E_G \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ with $\|E_G\| = \epsilon \cdot \log q$. Recall that GenGauss^A outputs a state $\rho_{k,y}$ that is overwhelmingly supported on vectors $t \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ such that $\|t\| \leq \frac{p}{2}$ with $A \cdot t = y \pmod q$. Therefore, we have for any $f \in \mathcal{F}$:

$$E^{\text{pk} - \mathcal{G}}(\rho_{k,y}) = S_G A \cdot t, E_G(\rho_{k,y}) = S_G y, E_G(\rho_{k,y}) = S_G y \pmod q$$

where the last equality follows from the fact that

$$\|E_G(t)\| \leq \|E_G\| \cdot \|t\| \leq \epsilon \cdot \log q \cdot \frac{p}{2} = \epsilon \cdot \log q \cdot \frac{p}{2}$$

and $\epsilon \cdot \log q \cdot \frac{p}{2} = \epsilon \cdot \log q \cdot \frac{p}{2} \ll \frac{p}{2}$ for our choice of parameters. \square

Proof of security. Our first result on the security of Construction 11 concerns $\text{negl}^1_{\epsilon} - \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon} - 1^0$ -security, i.e., we assume that revocation succeeds with overwhelming probability.

Theorem 38. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and q be a prime modulus with $q = 2^{\lambda}$ and $\epsilon = \frac{1}{\log q}$ each parameterized by $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $\epsilon = \epsilon \cdot \log q$. Let $\rho_{k,y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ and $U \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ be any noise ratio with $\|U\| = \frac{1}{2^{\lambda}}$, and let $\gamma \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times}$ be a sufficiently large rounding parameter with

$$\epsilon = \epsilon \cdot \log q \cdot \frac{1}{2^{\lambda}}$$

Then, assuming the quantum subexponential hardness of $\text{SIS}^{\leq \frac{p}{2}}$ and $\text{SIS}^{\leq \frac{p}{2}}$, our revocable PRF scheme $\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke}^0$ defined in Construction 11 satisfies $\text{negl}^1_{\epsilon} - \text{negl}^1_{\epsilon} - 1^0$ -revocation security according to Definition 44.

Proof. Let A be a QPT adversary and suppose that

$$|\Pr[1] - \text{Expt}^A_{11-0^0} - \Pr[1] - \text{Expt}^A_{11-1^0}] = \epsilon \cdot \log q$$

for some function $\epsilon \cdot \log q$ with respect to security experiment $\text{Expt}^A_{11-0^0}$ from Figure 5.14. To complete the proof, it suffices to show that $\epsilon \cdot \log q$ is negligible.

Suppose for the sake of contradiction that $\epsilon \cdot \log q = \epsilon \cdot \log q$. Let us now introduce a sequence of hybrid experiments which will be relevant for the remainder of the proof.

Expt^A 11— P:

Initialization Phase:

- ^ The challenger runs the procedure Gen^{11-0} :
 1. Sample $A \leftarrow \text{td}_A^0$ $\text{GenTrap}^{11-1} \leftarrow \mathcal{G}$
 2. Generate $A_{\#} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{G}}^{1 \times \ell} <^0 <$ with $\overline{A_{\#}} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{G}}^{\ell} <$ and $A_{\#} = A$.
 3. Compute $A_Z = \text{KG}^{11-1} \leftarrow \mathcal{G}^{A_{\#}-Z^0}$, where KG is as defined in [Construction 10](#) and $Z : \{0,1\}^{\ell} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{G}}^{\ell} <$ is such that $Z^1 \mathcal{G}$ outputs an all zero matrix for every $\mathcal{G} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell}$. Parse A_Z as $\{? : -B\}^0$.
 4. Generate $\{j_k y_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{G}}^{\ell}} \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}^{1A-f^0}$ with

$$j_k y_i = \begin{matrix} \tilde{0} \\ r_f \cdot x^0 \cdot j_x i \bullet \\ \times 2 \mathbb{Z}_{\mathcal{G}}^{\ell} \\ Ax=y \cdot 1 \bmod \mathcal{G} \end{matrix}$$
 5. Let $\{? : -B\}^0 = \{y^0\}$, $r : = \{? : -j_k y_i\}^0$ and $\text{msk} = \text{td}_A$.
- ^ The challenger sends $\{? : -j_k y_i\}^0$ to A .

Revocation Phase:

- ^ The challenger sends the message REVOKE to A .
- ^ A generates a (possibly entangled) bipartite quantum state $\rho_{\mathcal{G}x}$ in systems $\mathcal{H} \otimes \mathcal{H}_{\text{Aux}}$ with $\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}_{\mathcal{G}}$, returns system ρ and holds onto the auxiliary system Aux .
- ^ The challenger runs $\text{Revoke}^{1\text{msk}-r^0}$, where r^0 is the reduced state in system ρ . If the outcome is invalid, the challenger aborts.

Guessing Phase:

- ^ The challenger samples $\mathcal{G} \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell}$ and sends \mathcal{G} to A , where
 - If $1 = 0$: compute $S_{\mathcal{G}}$ from B: as in [Claim 16](#). Set $H = \text{bS}_{\mathcal{G}} y_{\mathcal{G}}$.
 - If $1 = 1$: sample $H \leftarrow \{0,1\}^{\ell}$.
- ^ A outputs a string g^0 and wins if $1^0 = 1$.

Figure 5.14: The revocable PRF experiment $\text{Expt}^A 11— P$ for [Construction 11](#).

Let $\text{RevDual} = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, \text{Revoke})$ be the ℓ -bit key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme from [Construction 8](#). Fix $x = 0^\ell$, where ℓ is the challenge message in the dual-Regev encryption security.

H_0 : This is $\text{Expt}^A(1, 1 - \epsilon)$ in [Figure 5.14](#).

H_1 : This is the same experiment $\text{Expt}^A(1, 1 - \epsilon)$, except for the following changes:

- ^ Sample a random string $A \in \{0, 1\}^g$.
- ^ Run the procedure $\text{RevDual} \cdot \text{KeyGen}(1, 1 - \epsilon)$ instead of $\text{GenTrap}(1, 1 - \epsilon, \mathbb{Z}_q)$ and $\text{GenGauss}(A, f)$ to obtain $(A, Z_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}, y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m, \text{msk} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m, \text{sk} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m)$.
- ^ Compute $(CT_1, CT_2) \leftarrow \text{RevDual} \cdot \text{Enc}(A, y - x)$, where $CT_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}$ and $CT_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$.
- ^ Set $G = A \cdot \text{bindecomp}(CT_1)$.

The rest of the hybrid is the same as before.

Note that Hybrid_0 and H_1 are identically distributed.

H_2 : This is the same experiment as before, except that the challenger now uses an alternative key-generation algorithm:

- ^ As before, run the procedure $\text{RevDual} \cdot \text{KeyGen}(1, 1 - \epsilon)$ instead of $\text{GenTrap}(1, 1 - \epsilon, \mathbb{Z}_q)$ and $\text{GenGauss}(A, f)$ to obtain $(A, Z_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}, y \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m, \text{msk} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m, \text{sk} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m)$. Sample $A \in \{0, 1\}^g$.
- ^ Let $\mathcal{A}: \{0, 1\}^g \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}$ be as defined in the beginning of [Section 5.7](#).
- ^ Run the alternate algorithm $\mathcal{M} \cdot \text{KG}(1, 1 - \epsilon, \mathbb{Z}_q, A)$ instead of $\mathcal{Z} \cdot \text{KG}(1, 1 - \epsilon, \mathbb{Z}_q, A, Z_0)$.
- ^ Compute the ciphertext $(CT_1, CT_2) \leftarrow \text{RevDual} \cdot \text{Enc}(A, y - x)$, where $CT_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}$. Then, set $G = A \cdot \text{bindecomp}(CT_1)$. Send G to the adversary in the guessing phase.

H_3 : This is the same hybrid as before, except that we choose $Z_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\times n}$ and $CT_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m$.

H_4 : This is the $\text{Expt}^A(1, 1 - \epsilon)$ in [Figure 5.14](#).

Note that Hybrid_3 and H_4 are identically distributed.

We now show the following.

Claim 18. By the shift-hiding property of KG-E^0 in Claim 17, we have that the two hybrids H_1 and H_2 are computationally indistinguishable, i.e.,

$$H_1 \approx H_2$$

Proof. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists a non-negligible difference in the advantage of the adversary A in the two hybrids H_1 and H_2 .

We now design a reduction B that violates the shift-hiding property as follows.

1. Sample $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$. Send $Z = A^0$ to the challenger.
2. The challenger responds with $(CT_1, CT_2) = \text{GenGauss}(A, r)$.
3. Compute $(j, k, y) \leftarrow \text{GenGauss}(A, r)$ from the challenger.
4. Set $r' = r \oplus y$.
5. Compute $(CT_1, CT_2) \leftarrow \text{RevDual}(\text{Enc}(A, y, r'), CT_1, CT_2)$, where $CT_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\leq}$ and $CT_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{\leq}$. Then, set $G = A \cdot \text{bindecomp}(CT_1)$.
6. Compute $\text{Eval}(r', G)$ to obtain H while recovering r' (using the Almost as Good As New Lemma, Lemma 1) such that $\Pr[r' = r] = \text{negl}(\lambda)$.
7. Send r' to A .
8. A computes a state on two registers aux . It returns the state on the register aux .
9. A , on input the registers aux and $G = H$, outputs a bit b .
10. Output b .

If r' is generated using KG-E^1 then we are precisely in H_1 (except that Revoke is not performed). Moreover, if r' is generated using KG-E^0 , then we are in hybrid H_2 (except that Revoke is not performed). Therefore, the reduction B has a non-negligible advantage at distinguishing H_1 and H_2 whenever Revoke outputs \perp on system R . By Lemma 28, this implies that we can use B to break the shift-hiding property with non-negligible advantage thereby yielding a contradiction. This proves the claim. \square

Next, we invoke the security of the bit variant of our key-revocable Dual-Regev scheme (which is implied by Theorem 24) to show the following.

Claim 19. By the security of our n -bit key-revocable Dual-Regev encryption scheme, we have that the two hybrids H_2 and H_3 are computationally indistinguishable, i.e.,

$$H_2 \approx H_3$$

Proof. Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there exists a non-negligible difference in the advantage of A in H_2 and H_3 . Using A , we can now design a reduction B that violates the revocation security of our n -bit revocable Dual-Regev scheme which is implicit in Theorem 25.

The reduction B proceeds as follows.

1. First, it receives as input y and a quantum state

$$|j_k\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (|x\rangle + |x \oplus y\rangle)$$

2. The reduction generates a quantum state as follows:

- ^ Sample a random string $r \in \{0,1\}^n$.
- ^ Let $A : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ be as defined in the beginning of Section 5.7.
- ^ Run the algorithm $\text{KG}^A(1^\lambda, r)$ and parse out as (k, σ) .
- ^ Set $r' = \sigma \oplus y$.

Send r' to A .

3. A outputs a state on two registers out and aux . The register out is returned. The reduction forwards the register aux to the challenger.
4. The reduction then gets the challenge ciphertext $\text{CT} = \text{Enc}_{k, \sigma}(\text{aux})$. The reduction then sets

$$G = A(\text{indec}(\text{CT}, k))$$

and sends G to A in the guessing phase, together with (k, σ) , which is computed using the secret key K (c.f. Claim 16).

5. A outputs a bit b . B outputs b .

There are two cases to consider here. In the first case, we have $\text{CT} = \text{Enc}_{k, \sigma}(\text{aux})$ is a Dual-Regev ciphertext. Here (k, σ) precisely corresponds to the output of the pseudorandom function on r and G . In the second case, we have $\text{CT} = \text{Enc}_{k, \sigma}(\text{aux})$, where

$CT_1 \approx Z_{\mathcal{G}}^{\leq}$ and $CT_2 \approx Z_{\mathcal{G}}^{\leq}$. Therefore, the resulting string CT_2 is negligibly close (in total variation distance) to a uniform distribution $Z_{\mathcal{G}}$.

Putting everything together, we find that the first case corresponds precisely to \mathcal{B} , whereas the second case corresponds to \mathcal{B} . As a result, \mathcal{B} violates the revocation security of our bit revocable Dual-Regev scheme which is implicit in Theorem 24. This completes the proof. \square

Putting everything together, we have shown that

$$|\Pr[1 - \text{Expt}^A(1-\epsilon)] - \Pr[1 - \text{Expt}^A(1-\epsilon)]| = \text{negl}_{\epsilon}^{\epsilon}.$$

\square

Finally, we prove that Construction 11 achieves the stronger notion of $(1-\epsilon)\text{-poly}(\epsilon)$ -security assuming Conjecture 1.

Theorem 39. Let $n = 2^N$ and p be a prime modulus with $p = 2^{>1-\epsilon}$ and $\epsilon = 2^{-\log p}$ each parameterized by 2^N . Let $\epsilon = \epsilon \log p$. Let $\epsilon < \epsilon$ and $U \in \{0,1\}^n$ be any noise ratio with $1 \cdot U = \epsilon \cdot 2^{>1-\epsilon}$, and let ϵ be a sufficiently large rounding parameter with

$$\epsilon = \epsilon \cdot 3 \cdot \log p = \epsilon \cdot \epsilon \cdot 2^{>1-\epsilon}.$$

Then, assuming Conjecture 1, our revocable PRF scheme $(\text{Gen-PRF-Eval-Revoke})$ defined in Construction 11 has $(1-\epsilon)\text{-poly}(\epsilon)$ -revocation security according to Definition 44.

Proof. The proof is the same as in Theorem 38, except that we invoke Theorem 25 instead of Theorem 24 for Dual-Regev security. \square

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