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RSA algorithm (1977)

$$m = p \cdot q$$

$$r := \varphi(m) = (p-1) \cdot (q-1)$$

r can only be computed with knowledge of (p,q)

$$\Rightarrow g^{n \cdot r + 1} \equiv g \pmod{m} \equiv g^{d \cdot e}$$

Choose a public exponent e and compute a private exponent d:

$$d \cdot e \equiv 1 \pmod{r} \Rightarrow d = e^{-1} \pmod{r}$$

Public key: (e, m)

Private key: (d, m)

RSA algorithm (1977)

(DLP: Discrete Logarithm Problem)

• Encryption:

$$b = a^e \mod m$$

Decryption:

$$b^d \equiv a^{e \cdot d} \mod m = a$$

• Signature:

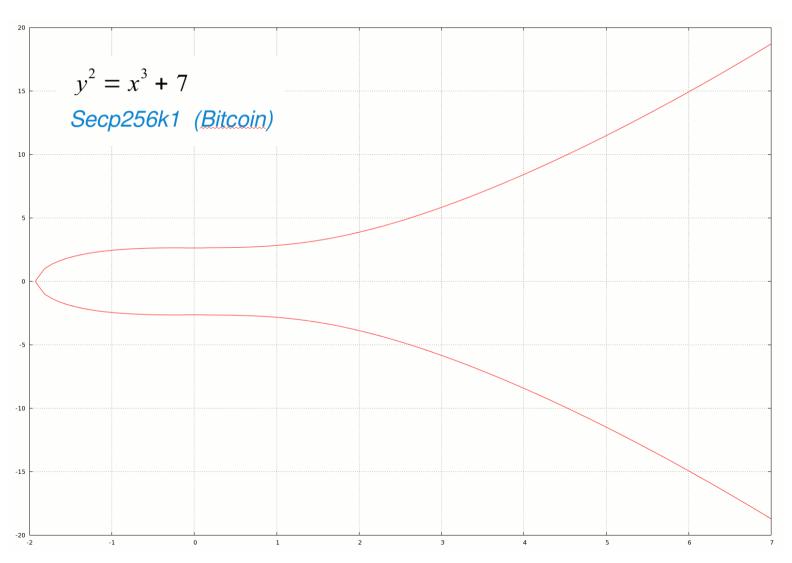
$$b = a^d \mod m$$

Verification:

$$b^e \equiv a^{d \cdot e} \bmod m = a$$

Elliptic Curve Crypto (1985)

$$y^2 = x^3 + a \cdot x + b \pmod{p}$$



Elliptic Curve Crypto (1985)

Generator point G forms an additive cyclic group $\langle G \rangle_{Fp}$ on curve

The order n of G on the curve is the smallest value with $n \cdot G = \infty$

 \Rightarrow all points on the curve have the form $P = a \cdot G$ with scalar $a \pmod{n}$

It is easy to compute $P = a \cdot G$, but "infeasible" to compute a from P and G

(analog to DLP: Discrete Logarithm Problem, but much more difficult to solve than DLP over finite fields ⇒ shorter keys)

Private key: d

Public key: $d \cdot G$

Elliptic Curve Crypto (1985)

Every DLP-based cryptosystem (DSA, ElGamal, DH) can be transformed into an ECC-based cryptosystem!

 Signature / Verification: **ECDSA**

En-/Decryption: **ECDH**

DH (Diffie-Hellman)

- Parameter g, p
- Random secrets: d_{A} and d_{B}
- Public: $e_x = g^{d_x} \mod p$
- Shared: $s = e_A^{d_B} = e_B^{d_A} \pmod{p}$

ECDH

- Parameter G, n
- Random secrets: d_{λ} and d_{R}
- Public: $e_X = d_X \cdot G \mod n$
- Shared: $S = e_A \cdot d_R = e_R \cdot d_A \pmod{n}$

Classical approach (number theory):

• Discrete Logarithm Problem: $a = b^e \pmod{m}$ [RSA] $P = a \cdot G \pmod{n}$ [ECC]

Pollard-Rho algorithm, Baby-step giant-step

Integer Factorization:

$$m = p \cdot q$$

[RSA]

All forms of quadratic sieves to find congruences $a^2 \equiv b^2 \pmod{m}$

$$p = (a + b), q = (a - b)$$

$$\Rightarrow m = p \cdot q = (a + b) \cdot (a - b) = a^{2} - b^{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow a^{2} \equiv b^{2} \pmod{m}$$

Quantum computing (1994)

Polynomial-Time Algorithms for Prime Factorization and Discrete Logarithms on a Quantum Computer*

Peter W. Shor[†]

Abstract

A digital computer is generally believed to be an efficient universal computing device; that is, it is believed able to simulate any physical computing device with an increase in computation time by at most a polynomial factor. This may not be true when quantum mechanics is taken into consideration. This paper considers factoring integers and finding discrete logarithms, two problems which are generally thought to be hard on a classical computer and which have been used as the basis of several proposed cryptosystems. Efficient randomized algorithms are given for these two problems on a hypothetical quantum computer. These algorithms take a number of steps polynomial in the input size, e.g., the number of digits of the integer to be factored.

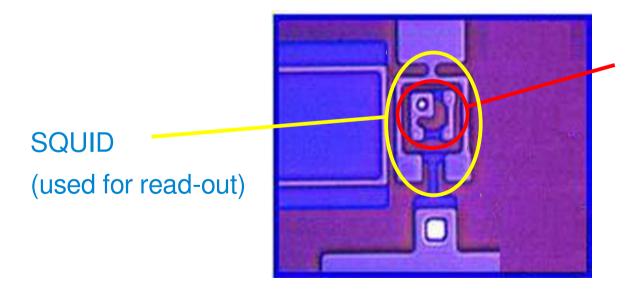
Keywords: algorithmic number theory, prime factorization, discrete logarithms, Church's thesis, quantum computers, foundations of quantum mechanics, spin systems, Fourier transforms

AMS subject classifications: 81P10, 11Y05, 68Q10, 03D10

Quantum computers

Qubits:

- $\alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ • Two states in superposition:
- Realized with ion traps, NMR, **Josephson junctions**, photons, ...



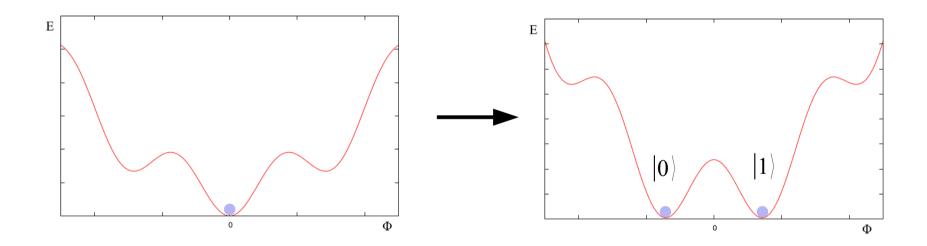
Two superconducting regions (loop) separated by a weak link (insulator)

Source: en.wikipedia.org

Quantum computers

Qubits (Josephson junction):

Apply a magnetic field, currents will flow in the loop • Writing: Apply a particular magnetic field and the ground state is split into two states in superposition.



Reading: Use a squid to measure the flows in the loop

Quantum gates (doing computations):

Classic computers: NOT, AND, OR

(quantum computer: only reversible operations = unitary matrices)

NOT:
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

C-NOT:
$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

NOT:
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$CC-NOT: C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Sufficient to build a universal computer!

Quantum computers

Quantum gates (doing computations):

C-NOT:
$$N = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

C-SHIFT:
$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & e^{i\varphi} \end{pmatrix}$$

HADAMARD:
$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Composite gates:

Quantum computing (Shor's algorithm):

Find a non-trivial solution for b such that $b^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

- 1. Pick a random a < m with gcd(a,m) = 1
- 2. Find the period r of $f(x) = a^x \mod m$ such that f(x+r) = f(x)
- 3. If r is odd or $a^{r/2} \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{m}$, go back to step 1
- 4. $b = a^{r/2}$ and $gcd(b\pm 1, m)$ is a non-trivial factor of n

Substitute "factoring problem" with "order-finding problem" which is more suitable for quantum computing

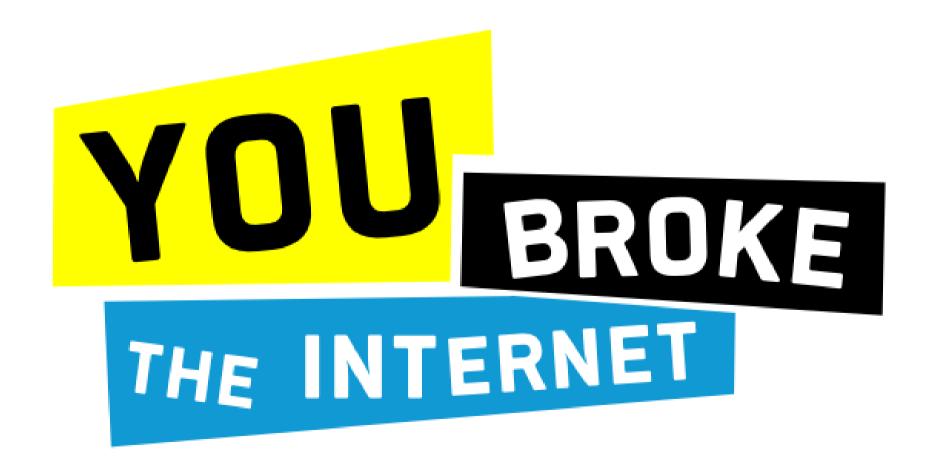
50% chance of finding a non-trivial factor for each pass

Quantum computing (Shor's algorithm):

- 1. Select q such that $m^2 \le q \ (= 2^L) < 2m^2$
- 2. Prepare qubit register $|a\rangle$ of length L and initialize to state $|0\rangle$
- 3. Prepare qubit register $|b\rangle$ of length $\lceil log, m \rceil$ and initialize to state $|0\rangle$
- 4. Create highest superposition of $|a\rangle$ by appying Hadamard gates
- 5. Apply (composite) U_f gate to $|a\rangle$ and $|b\rangle$: $|a,b\rangle \rightarrow |a,b\oplus f(a)\rangle$
- 6. Transform $|a\rangle$ into a different basis by a QFT (Quantum Fourier Transformation)
- 7. Observe $|a\rangle$ and compute the period r

NIST ECC domain parameters (and others ?!) becoming *fubar*

Thank you, stupid assholes!



We need new asymmetric key crypto:

- with resistence to quantum computer attacks
- developed as free software with no patents whatsoever
- with open peer review by crypto community
- "do what you want, anything goes" ignore commercial / governmental standardization promote community-agreed, decentralized "standards"

nTru, GGH Lattice-based cryptography:

Multivariate cryptography

 Hash-based signatures: Lamport-, Merkle-signatures

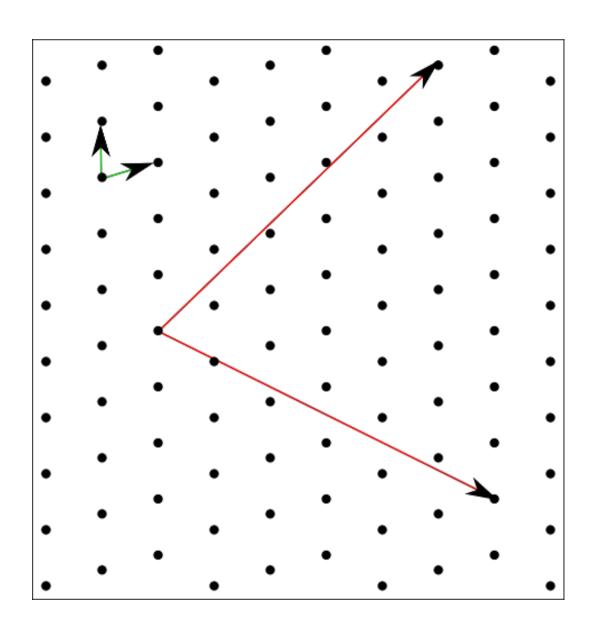
McEliece enc., Niederreiter sigs Code-based cryptography:

Lattice-based crypto:

"good" base

"bad" base

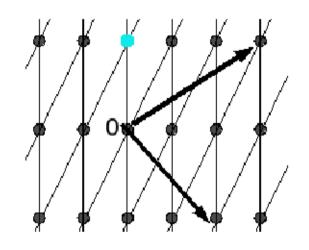
Find problems that are easy to solve with a good base, but are very hard to solve with a bad base...



Lattice-based crypto

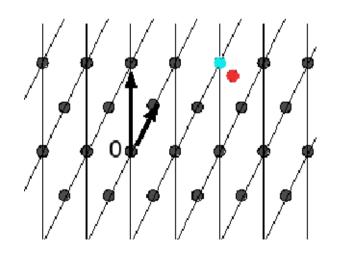
Shortest Vector Problem (SVP)

Find the shortest vector $v \in L$



Closest Vector Problem (CVP)

Find the vector $v \in L$ closest to a vector $w \notin L$



Source: en.wikipedia.org

Lattice-based crypto: nTru (https://github.com/NTRUOpenSourceProject/ntru-crypto)

• Based on objects in a truncated polynominal ring $\mathbb{Z}[X] / (X^N-1)$:

$$a = a_0 + a_1 X + a_2 X^2 + a_2 X^2 + \dots + a_{N-1} X^{N-1}$$

- Domain parameters (N, p, q) with N prime, q > p and $p \perp q$
- two polynominals f and g with $a_n \in \{-1,0,1\}$ Key generation:

Private key: $(f, f^{-1} \mod p)$

Public key: $p \cdot (f^{-1} \mod q) \cdot g \pmod q$

- Encryption: polynominals m, r results in $e = r \cdot h + m \pmod{q}$
- Decryption: $a = e \cdot f \pmod{q}$, $b = a \pmod{p}$, $m = (f^{-1} \mod p) \cdot b$

Code-based cryptography: (McEliece encryption)

- Linear binary codes [n,k,d] have length n, rank k and distance d
 - 1. Binary matrix G encodes blocks of k bits into blocks of n bits
 - 2. Minimal Hamming distance of rows (base vectors!) of G is d
 - 3. Efficient decoding algorithm to transform n bits back into k bits
 - 4. Matrix *H* detects *t* errors at any position in blocks of *k* bits

- Example: Hamming code $[2^r, 2^r r 1, 3]$ with $r \ge 2$
- Example: Hadamard code $[2^r, r, 2^{r-1}]$ with $r \ge 2$

Code-based cryptography: (McEliece encryption)

- Key generation:
 - 1. Construct a $k \times n$ binary matrix G that can correct t errors
 - 2. Construct a random $k \times k$ invertible binary matrix S
 - 3. Construct a random $n \times n$ permutation matrix **P**
 - 4. Compute matrix $K = S \cdot G \cdot P$

Public key: (K, t)

Private key: (S, G, P)

Code-based cryptography: (McEliece encryption)

- Encryption using public key (K, t):
 - 1. Construct a k-bit message m to be encrypted
 - 2. Compute *n*-bit encrypted message $e = m \cdot K$
 - 3. Construct a random *n*-bit vector *r* with *t* bits set
 - 4. Compute ciphertext $c = e \oplus t$
- Decryption using private key (S, G, P):
 - 1. Compute *n*-bit message $p = c \cdot P^{-1}$
 - 2. Decode n-bit message p into k-bit message d
 - 3. Compute k-bit plaintext message $m = p \cdot S^{-1}$



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