

Post-Quantum Security

(TU Wien, Austria, December 13th 2023)

o.Prof. Hon.-Prof. Dr. Dr. h.c. Frank Leymann

Institut für Architektur von Anwendungssystemen (IAAS)
Universität Stuttgart



Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

RSA

Key Generation

1. Choose two "large" prime numbers $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$
2. Compute $n = pq$
3. Compute $\varphi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ (*Euler-function* φ)
4. Choose "small" $g \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\varphi(n)$ and g coprime (i.e. $\gcd(\varphi(n), g) = 1$)
5. Determine solution d of equation $dg \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ (Euklid $\rightarrow O((\log n)^3)$)
6. (d, n) is *public* key
7. g is *private* key
8. Destroy $p, q, \varphi(n)$

Cracking the secret key g means to (i) determine $\varphi(n)$ (note: d is known) and then (ii) solving $dg \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ (this is simple).
 Determining $\varphi(n)$ is simple if $n = pq$ can be determined. This requires factorization. But factorization can be reduced to compute discrete logarithms

En-/Decryption

- A. Let μ be message to be encrypted
 - μ is mapped to a binary representation
 - μ must be split into blocks of size $< n$
 i.e. $\mu = \mu_1 \parallel \mu_2 \parallel \dots \parallel \mu_k$ with $\mu_j < n$
- B. $\bar{\mu} = \mu^d \pmod{n}$ is the *encrypted* message
- C. $\mu = \bar{\mu}^g \pmod{n}$ is the *decrypted* original message

Module Exponential Function

Chose an arbitrary $0 < a < n \in \mathbb{N}$

Define $\exp_a : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$ with $\exp_a(x) = a^x \bmod n$

\exp_a is called *module exponential function* with basis a

\exp_a has *period* $p : \Leftrightarrow \exp_a(p) = \exp_a(0)$ (with minimal p)

$$\Leftrightarrow a^p \bmod n = a^0 \bmod n = 1 \bmod n$$

$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{\Leftrightarrow} a^p \equiv 1 \bmod n \Leftrightarrow n \mid (a^p - 1) \Leftrightarrow \exists k : kn = (a^p - 1)$$

$$\exp_a \text{ has period } p \Leftrightarrow a^p \equiv 1 \bmod n$$

Cracking Keys

Assume we can determine the period of \exp_a

Then we know $a^p \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow \exists k : a^p - 1 = kn$

Assume $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is even (otherwise: chose another a)

Then: $kn = a^p - 1 = (a^{p/2} - 1)(a^{p/2} + 1)$

$\Leftrightarrow (a^{p/2} - 1)$ and n have a common divisor, or $(a^{p/2} + 1)$ and n have a common divisor

$\Leftrightarrow \gcd((a^{p/2} - 1), n)$ or $\gcd((a^{p/2} + 1), n)$ is a divisor of n

I.e. if we can determine $p \in \mathbb{N}$ with $a^p \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ we can determine a divisor of n and, thus, we can determine the prime factors of n !

Cracking the secret key g means to (i) determine $\varphi(n)$ (note: d is known) and then (ii) solving $dg \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ (this is simple).
Determining $\varphi(n)$ is simple if $n = rs$ can be determined.

Factorization means to determine period of \exp_a

Discrete Logarithm

It is $\exp_a(x) = a^x \bmod n$

Smallest number y with $a^y \equiv z \bmod n$ is called *discrete logarithm* of z with basis a : $\log_a z = y$

This defines a map $\log_a : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$ with $z \mapsto y$ (as usual $\exp_a(\log_a z) = z$ and $\log(\exp_a y) = y$)

Example: $2^4 = 16 \equiv 5 \bmod 11 \Rightarrow \log_2 5 = 4$

We know: \exp_a has period $p \Leftrightarrow a^p \equiv 1 \bmod n$

Computing the period p of \exp_a means to compute $p = \log_a 1$

Thus, factorization can be reduced to compute discrete logarithms

Elliptic Curves

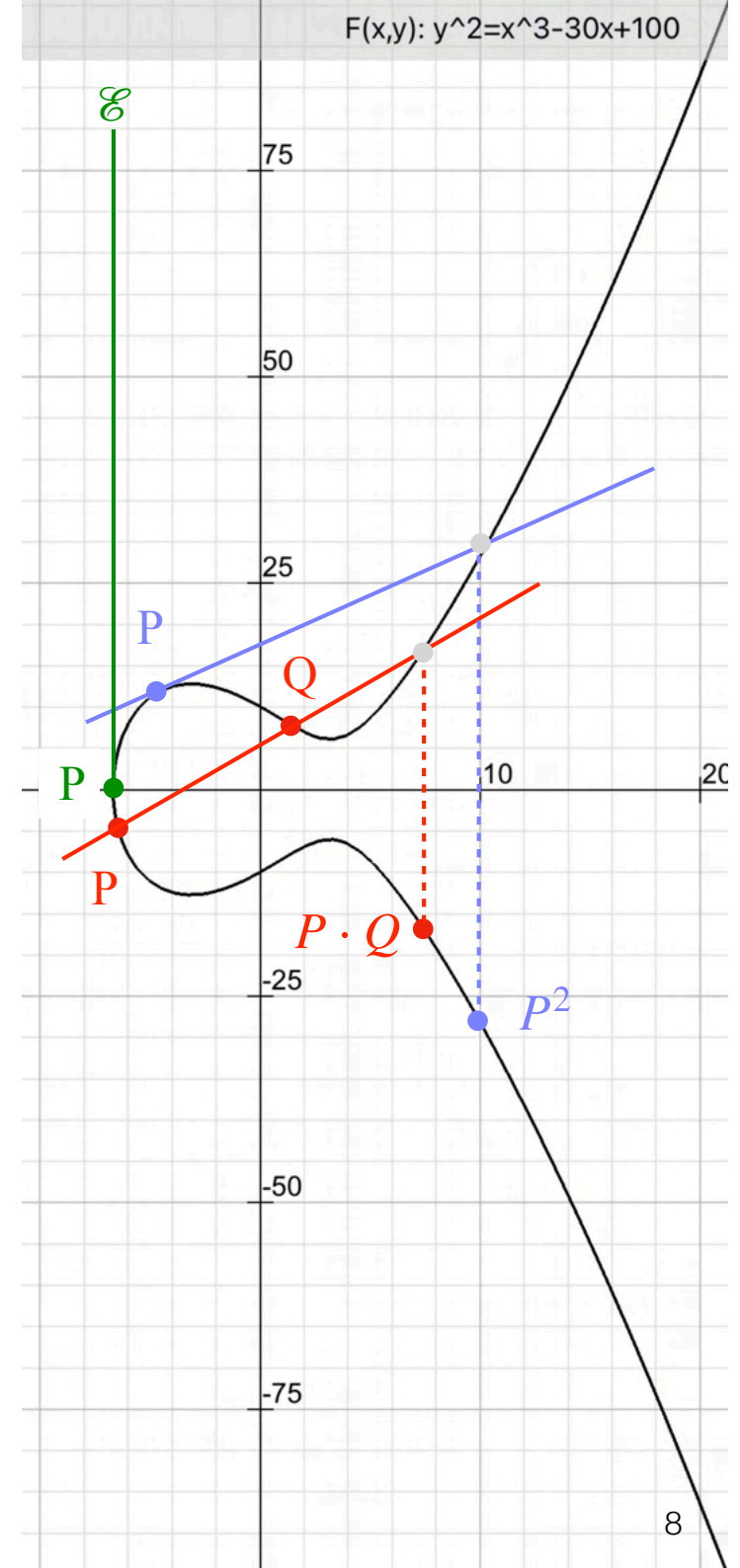
An *elliptic curve* is defined by $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$
with $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$

- The curve C is symmetric to the x -axis: $P \in C \Rightarrow -P \in C$
- An infinitely far point \mathcal{E} is added to the curve C

Definition of multiplication $\cdot : C \times C \rightarrow C$

- $P, Q \in C$ and let $\overline{PQ} \cap C = R \Rightarrow -R \rightarrow P \cdot Q$
- $P \in C$, let g_p be the tangent at C in P , $g_p \cap C = R \Rightarrow -R \rightarrow P^2 := P \cdot P$
- $P \in C$, let g_p be the tangent at C in P , $g_p \cap C = \emptyset \Rightarrow \mathcal{E} \rightarrow P^2$
 - \mathcal{E} becomes the neutral element, in symbol: $P \cdot \mathcal{E} = P$

(C, \cdot) is an abelian group



Elliptic Curve Cryptography

(very informal...the whole truth has to introduce finite fields, elliptic curves over finite fields, order and cofactor of subgroups etc*)

- The curve's parameter a and b are published, i.e. $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$
- A point $G \in C$ (*generator*) is chosen and published
- Each participant has a *private key* $s \in \mathbb{N}$ and $G^s =: P \in C$ as corresponding *public key*

⇒ Cracking the private key s means to compute $s = \log P$

Cracking Elliptic Curve Cryptography
can be reduced to
compute discrete logarithms

- Shor's algorithm can brake ECC (because it computes discrete logarithms)
 - Braking ECC requires less qubits than factorization, and orders of magnitudes fewer gates
⇒ cracking ECC with quantum computers is easier than cracking RSA
(<https://arxiv.org/abs/1706.06752>)

Elliptic Curve Encryption

- Let $G \in C$ be the generator
- Then, $G^s =: P \in C$ is the *public key*, with $s \in \mathbb{N}$ the *private key*

Encryption

- Message m is mapped to a point $M \in C$
 - $m \in \mathbb{N}$ as a bit string \Rightarrow then compute y with $y^2 = m^3 + am + b \Rightarrow M = (m, y)$
- Choose a random $k \in \mathbb{N}$
- Compute $E_1 = G^k$ and $E_2 = M \cdot P^k$
- Encrypted message is $\chi(m) = (E_1, E_2)$

Decryption

- Compute $M = E_2 \div (E_1)^s = E_2 \cdot (E_1)^{-s}$
 - It is $(E_1)^s = (G^k)^s = (G^s)^k = P^k$
 - $\Rightarrow E_2 \cdot (E_1)^{-s} = M \cdot P^k \cdot (E_1)^{-s} = M \cdot P^k \cdot P^{-k} = M$
- Then $m = \pi_1(M)$

In practice, ECC is not used for encryption,
but for key exchange and signatures

ECC Key Exchange

(Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman)

- Let $G \in C$ be the generator
- Alice has $G^{s_A} =: P_A \in C$ as public key, with $s_A \in \mathbb{N}$ as private key
- Bob has $G^{s_B} =: P_B \in C$ as public key, with $s_B \in \mathbb{N}$ as private key

- Alice and Bob exchange P_A, P_B

- Alice computes $K_A = P_B^{s_A}$
- Bob computes $K_B = P_A^{s_B}$
- In fact, $K_A = P_B^{s_A} = (G^{s_B})^{s_A} = (G^{s_A})^{s_B} = P_A^{s_B} = K_B$

⇒ Alice and Bob share the same secret key $K (= K_A = K_B)$

(Note: Also, signatures can be computed based on elliptic curves too)

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

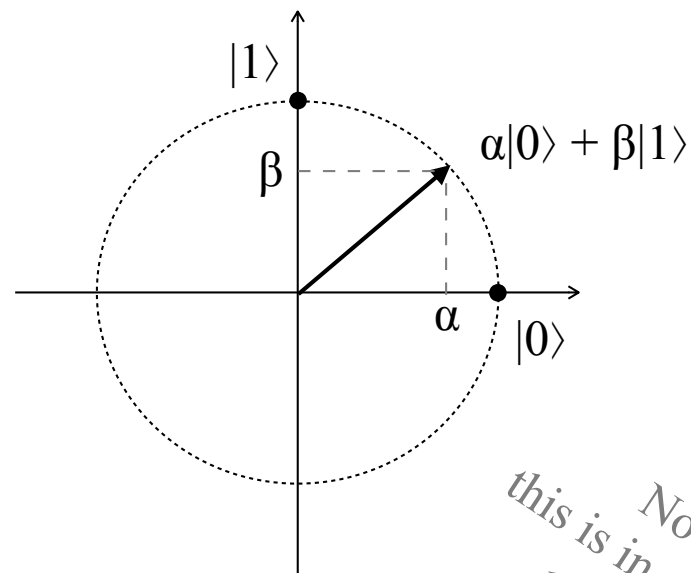
Summary

Qbit & Superposition

Quantum bit (*Qbit*) is in the two classical states $|0\rangle$ or $|1\rangle$ at the same time (!):
Superposition

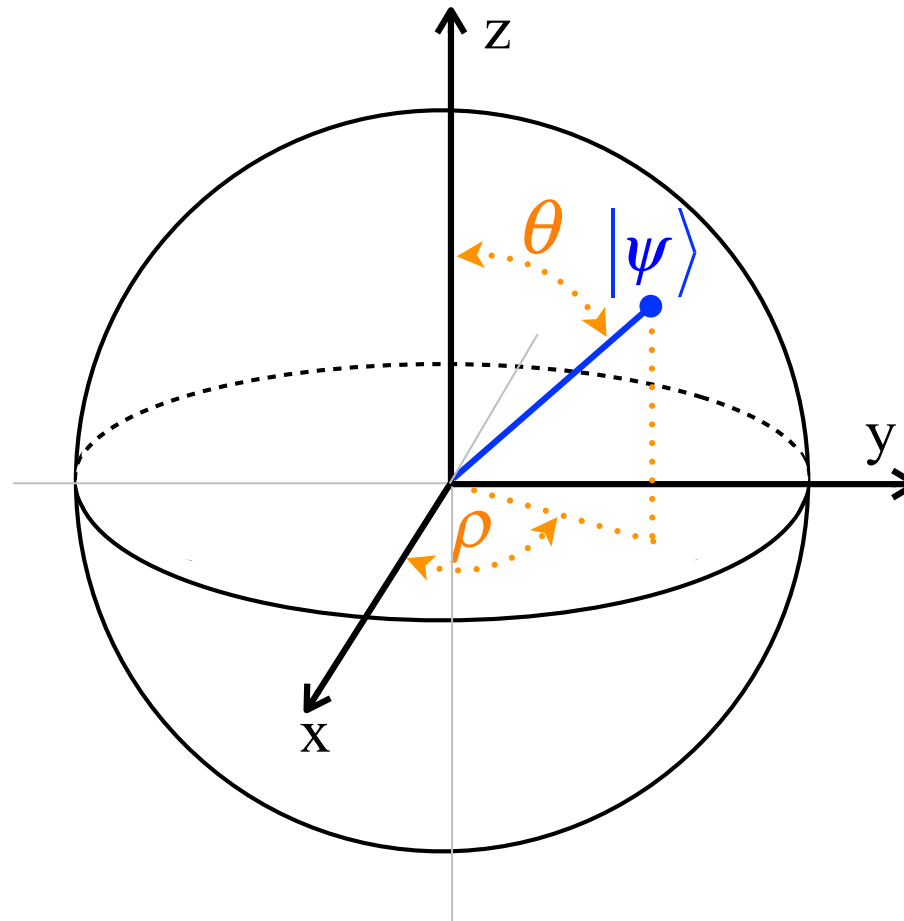
State of a qbit is $\alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$

$\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$ and $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$.



Note:
 this is in $\mathbb{C}^2 \approx \mathbb{R}^4$,
not in \mathbb{R}^2 !
 I.e. this is S^3 ,
not S^1 !

Bloch Sphere

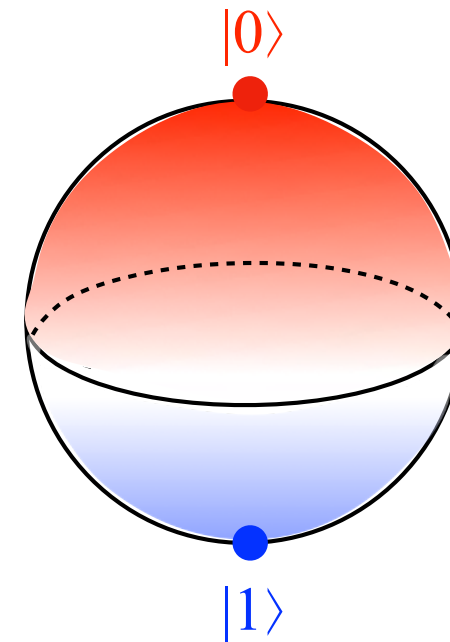


Intuition of a Qbit



Bit

A bit is either "0" or "1"
 → Two possible values



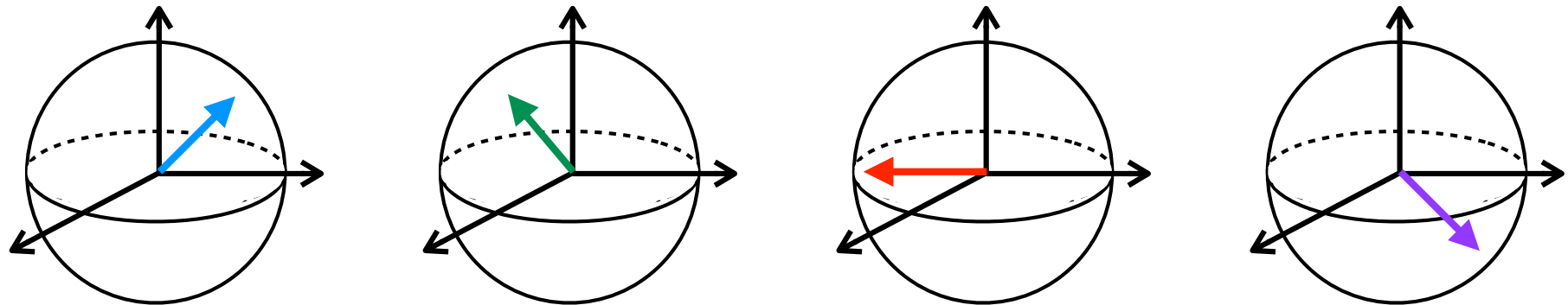
Qbit

A qbit is an arbitrary point on the
 Bloch Sphere
 → Uncountably infinite possible values

Quantum Register

Classical register is a series of n bits

Quantum *register* is a series of n qbits



Quantum register with n qbits is the superposition of the corresponding 2^n states

$$|00\dots00\rangle, |00\dots01\rangle, |00\dots10\rangle, \dots, |11\dots11\rangle$$

Quantum Parallelism

Classical register with n bit \rightarrow 1 value at a time

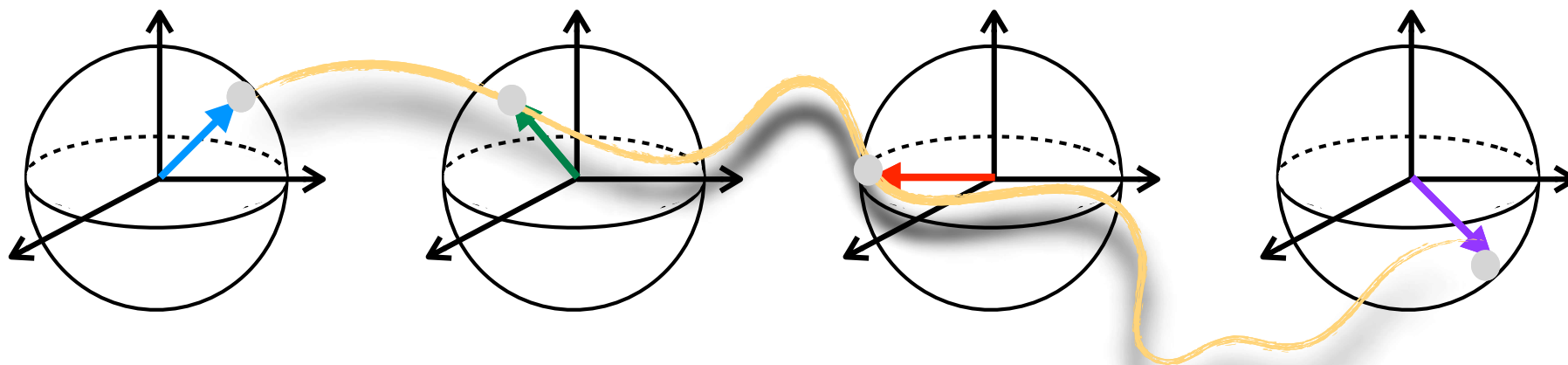
Quantum register with n qbit \rightarrow 2^n values at the **same** time

$$50 \text{ Qbits} \mapsto 2^{50} = (2^{10})^5 > (10^3)^5 = 10^{15} (\hat{=} \text{Peta...})$$

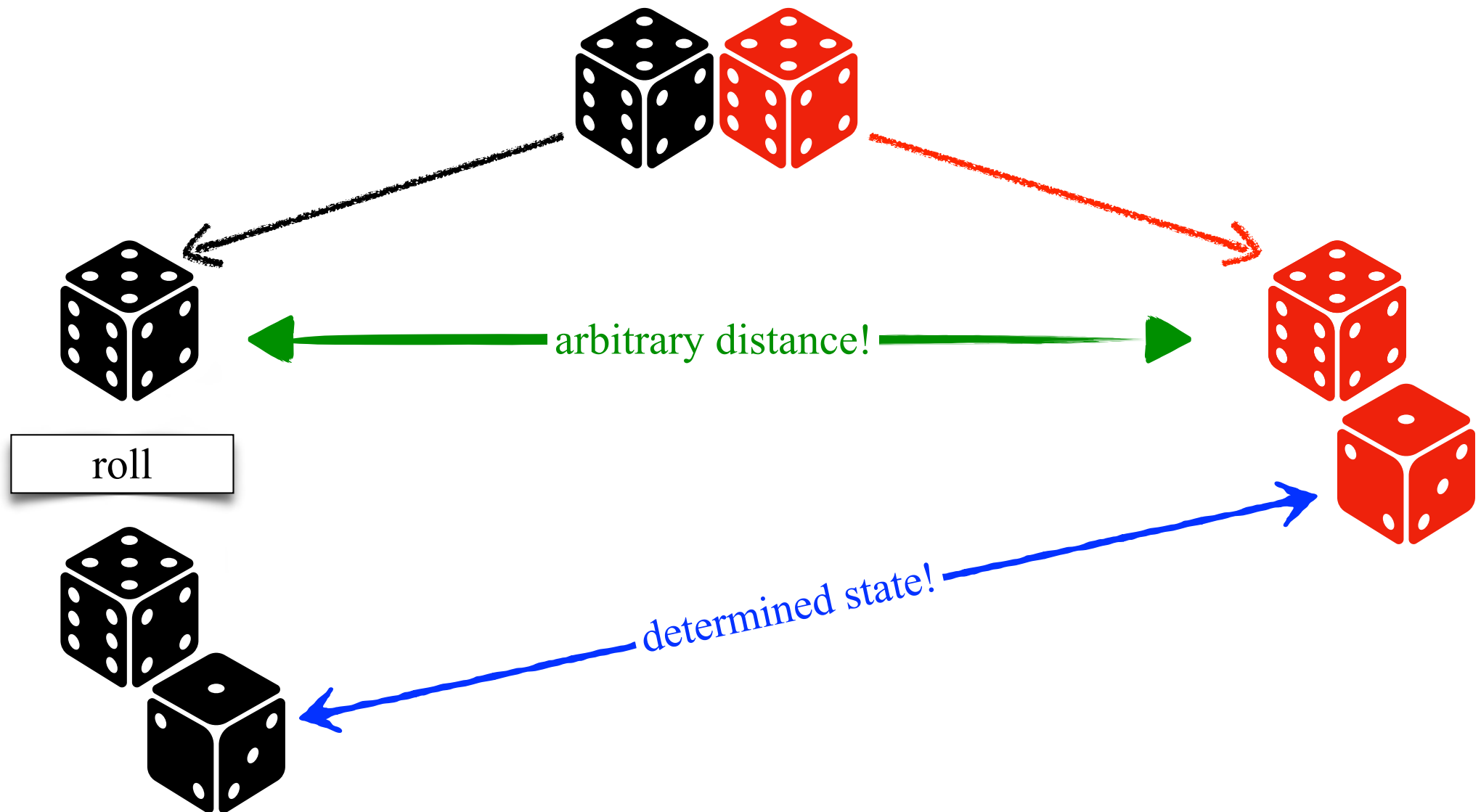
$$\# \text{Atoms in universe} \leq 10^{90} = (10^3)^{30} \leq (2^{10})^{30} = 2^{300} \mapsto 300 \text{ Qbits}$$

Quantum computer manipulates 2^n values at the same time
(*Quantum Parallelism*)

Entanglement



Intuition: Entanglement



Entanglement: Importance

Entanglement is unique for quantum computing!

Each computation not involving entangled qubits,
can be realized classically and **in principle** with the same
efficiency than a quantum computation

(**but:** n qubits $\Rightarrow 2^n$ classical storage | quantum parallelism | ...)

Every quantum algorithm showing exponential speedup
compared to a classical algorithm, must exploit entanglement.

(R. Jozsa, N. Linden: On the role of entanglement in quantum computational speed-up.
(2003) arXiv:quant-ph/0201143v2)

Shor Algorithm: Impression

Step 1: Initialize Qbit-Register

$$R = |a\rangle|b\rangle \leftarrow |0\dots 0\rangle|0\dots 0\rangle$$

Step 2: Apply Hadamard Transformation to $|a\rangle$

$$R \leftarrow H^{\otimes n} \otimes I(|0\rangle|0\rangle) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle|0\rangle$$

Superposition

Step 3: Apply Oracle Function

$$R \leftarrow U_f(R) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{x=0}^{N-1} |x\rangle|f(x)\rangle$$

Entanglement
& Parallelism

Step 4: Apply Quanten Fourier Transformation to $|a\rangle$

$$|a\rangle \leftarrow \text{QFT}_N(|a\rangle)$$

Determine
Period

Step 5: $y \leftarrow \text{Measure } |a\rangle$

Step 6: Expand y as "Continued Fraction" $[y_0; y_1, \dots, y_n]$

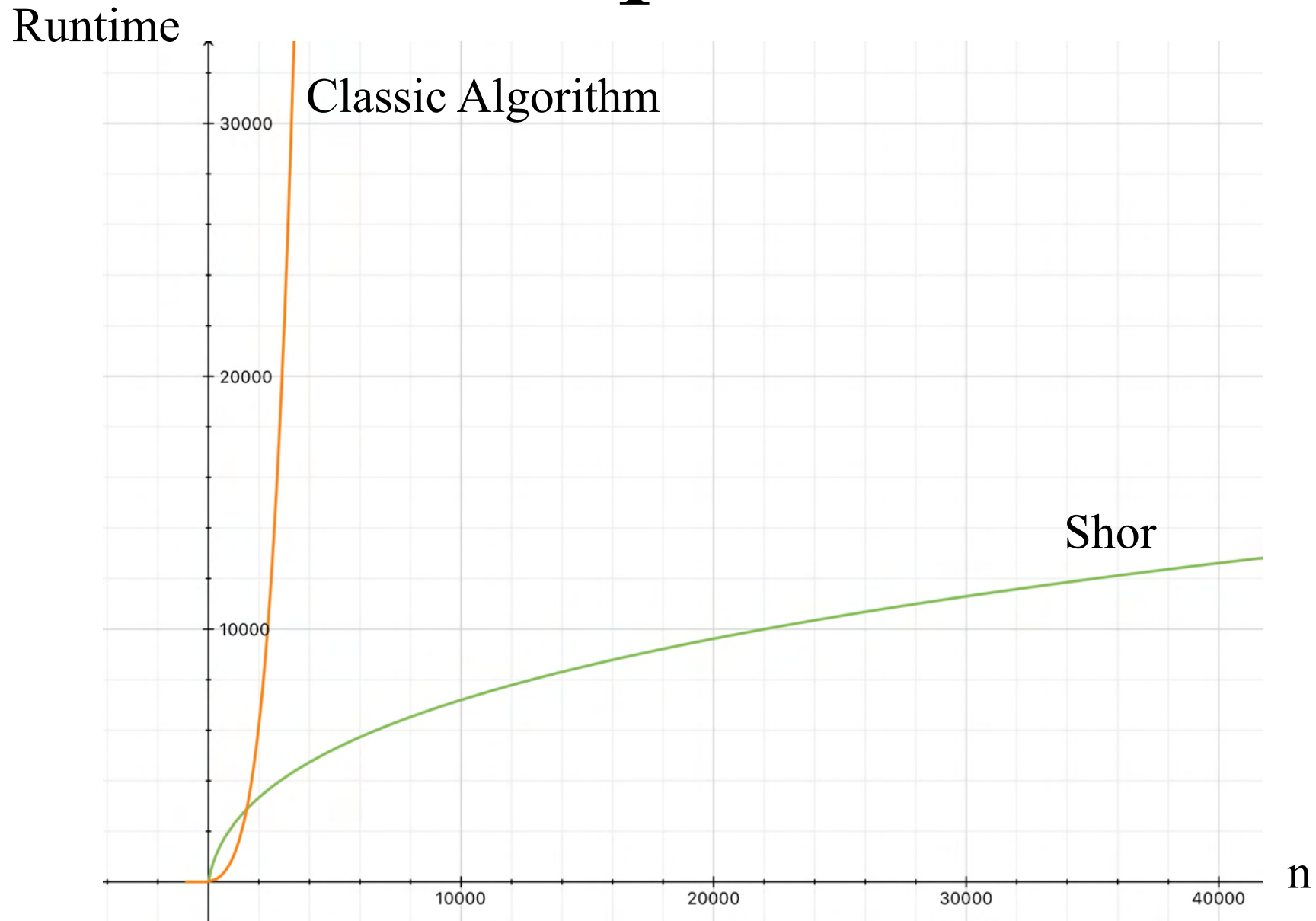
Step 7: $p \leftarrow \text{Determine } p \text{ from convergents } [y_0; y_1, \dots, y_k], k \leq n$

Step 8: Output of p

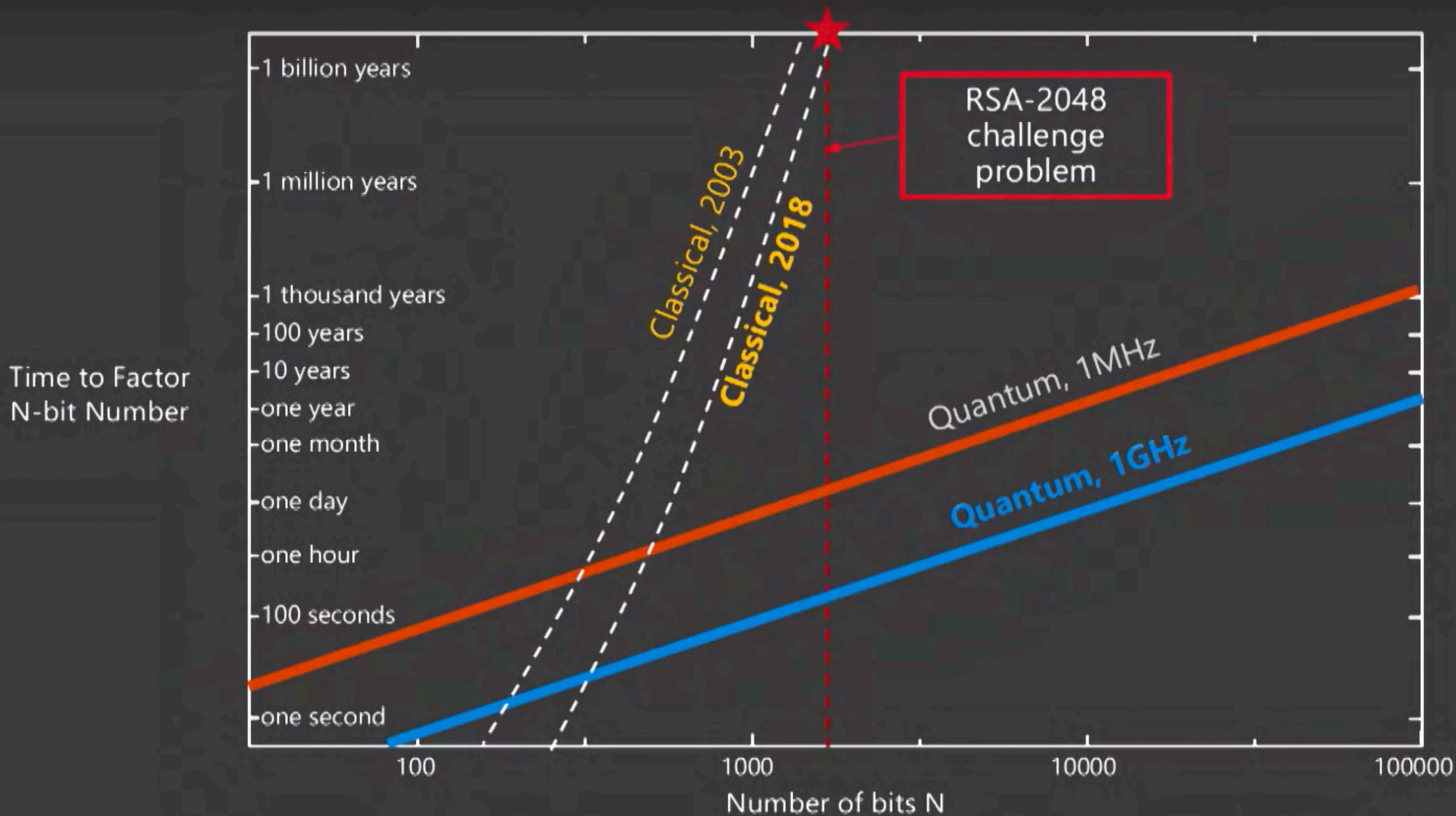
Quantum
Part

Classical
Part

Comparison



Assumption: error-corrected QPU!



(In 2019 , frequency was already at $\approx 5\text{GHz}$
<https://www.ibm.com/blogs/research/2019/12/qiskit-openpulse/>)

Required Qbits & Fidelity

To factorize a number Z that has n Bits in binary representation,
in order to run the Shor Algorithm you need:

- $5n+1$ Qbits
- $4n^3$ Operations (Gates)

CRQC
Cryptographically Relevant Quantum Computer

RSA-2048:

- $n = 2048$
- ≈ 10.000 qbits
- $\approx 34 \cdot 10^9$ operations

Today:

- ≈ 400 qbits
- $\approx 10^3$ operations

Seems to be impossible
for quite some years!

Recent Advancements (1/2)

...we show that 12 logical qubits can be preserved for ten million syndrome cycles using 288 physical qubits in total, assuming the physical error rate of 0.1% ()*

$\Rightarrow \sim 24$ physical qubits (\emptyset) required for realizing 1 logical qubit

...achieving the same level of error suppression on 12 logical qubits with the surface code would require more than 4000 physical qubits ()*

$\Rightarrow \sim 10 \dots 100 \times$ improvement from former expectations!

$\Rightarrow 10.000$ logical qubits $\hat{=}$ $10.000 \cdot 24 = 240.000$ physical qubits

Expected in a few years!

(*) Sergey Bravyi, Andrew W. Cross, Jay M. Gambetta, Dmitri Maslov, Patrick Rall, Theodore J. Yoder: High-threshold and low-overhead fault-tolerant quantum memory. (2023) <https://arxiv.org/abs/2308.07915>

Recent Advancements (2/2)

...we have successfully factorized ... 261980999226229 (48-bit), with ...10 qubits in a superconducting quantum processor...

We estimate that a quantum circuit with 372 physical qubits and a depth of thousands is necessary to challenge RSA-2048 using our algorithm.

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/2212.12372.pdf> (2022)

⇒ NISQ machine!

TABLE I. Resource estimation for RSA numbers. The main quantum resources mentioned are the number of qubits, the quantum circuit depth of QAOA with a single iteration in three typical topologies, including all connected system (Kn), 2D-lattice system (2DSL) and 1D-chain system (LNN). The results are obtained without considering the native compilation of the ZZ-basic module (or ZZ-SWAP basic module) in a specific physical system.

RSA number	Qubits	Kn-depth	2DSL-depth	LNN-depth
RSA-128	37	113	121	150
RSA-256	64	194	204	258
RSA-512	114	344	357	458
RSA-1024	205	617	633	822
RSA-2048	372	1118	1139	1490

...it's getting close!

...that's still a problem!

IBM's Osprey QPU already has 433 Qubits (2023)

...But What About Symmetric Encryption?

- Variational Quantum Attack Algorithm (VQAA) (*)
<https://link.springer.com/content/pdf/10.1007/s11432-022-3511-5.pdf>
 - ...suitable for today's NISQ machines (!)
 - ...can crack symmetric keys
(standard (AES)-like symmetric cryptography)
- This invalidates two assumptions (which have been consensus):
 - Symmetric encryption is quantum safe
 - Error corrected QPUs are needed to break encryption

(*) Wang, Z., Wei, S., Long, GL. et al.: Variational quantum attacks threaten advanced encryption standard based symmetric cryptography. Sci. China Inf. Sci. 65, 200503 (2022)

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

Basics about Lattices

Lattices

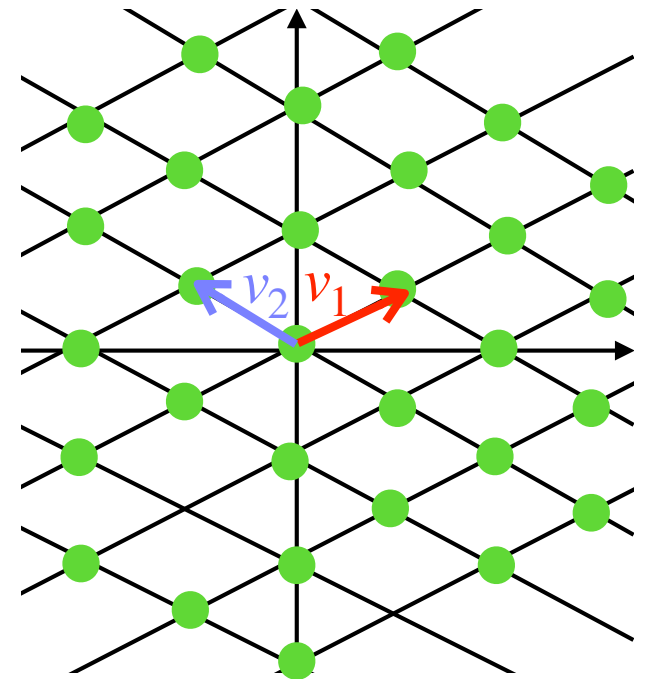
Let $v_1, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be linear independent

$\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle v_1, \dots, v_k \rangle := \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k g_i v_i \mid g_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$ is called

the *lattice* of rank k with basis $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$

If $k = n$ the lattice is called to have *full rank*

Λ is an abelian subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n



An Equivalent Definition

A *lattice* Λ is a discrete additive subgroup of \mathbb{R}^n , i.e.

- Λ is closed under addition
- there is an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for all $x \neq y \in \Lambda$ it is $\|x - y\| \geq \varepsilon$

From a high level, the equivalence of both definitions is proven as follows:

- Obviously, \mathbb{Z}^n is a lattice (discrete and additive)
- If $M \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R})$, then $\{Mx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}^n\}$ is a lattice (additivity is clear, discreteness is hard)
- $\{Mx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}^n\} = \left\{ \sum x_i m_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\} = \Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle m_1, \dots, m_n \rangle$ is a lattice in the former sense
 ...where $M = (m_1 \dots m_n)$ is the matrix with column m_1, \dots, m_n

Based on the above definition:

$$M \in \text{GL}(n, \mathbb{R}) \Rightarrow \{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n \mid Mx = 0\} \text{ is a lattice}$$

(this is an important observation for post-quantum cryptography! See LWE later!)

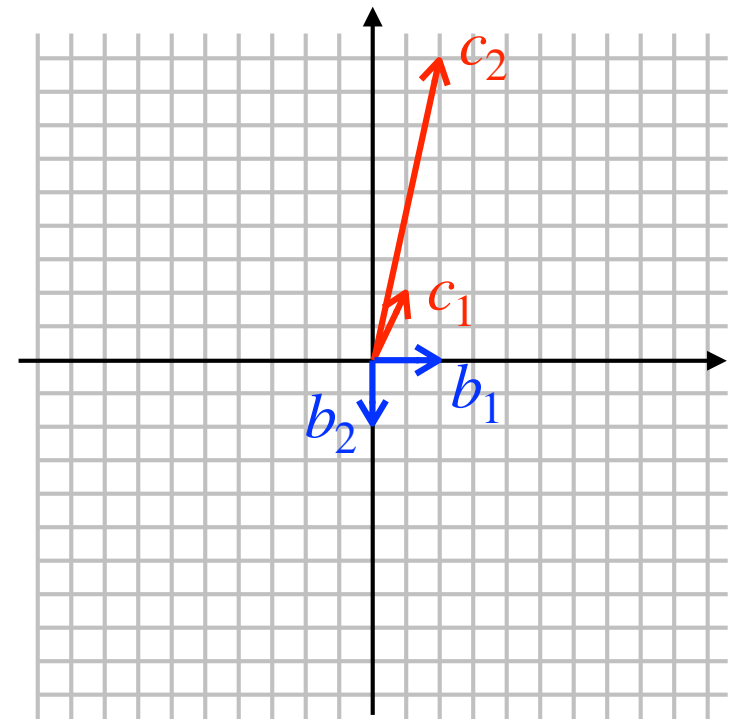
Bases of a Lattice

A lattice Λ has many different bases:

- Let $\mathcal{U} \in \mathbb{Z}^{n \times n}$ with $\det \mathcal{U} = \pm 1$ (*unimodular matrix*)
- Let $\mathcal{B} = \{b_1, \dots, b_n\}$ be a basis of Λ and B the matrix with columns b_1, \dots, b_n
- Then, the columns c_1, \dots, c_n of the matrix $C = B \cdot \mathcal{U}$ are a basis $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$ of Λ

Computations with the basis b_1, b_2 are much simpler than computations with the basis c_1, c_2 especially in high dimensions ($n > 500$) that are used in practice

⇒ Question is: what are good bases for lattice-based computations and how to find them?



Lattice Problems

Nearly Orthogonal Basis

Let $\mathcal{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis of the lattice Λ of full rank

Let $B = (v_1 \dots v_n)$ be the matrix with columns v_i

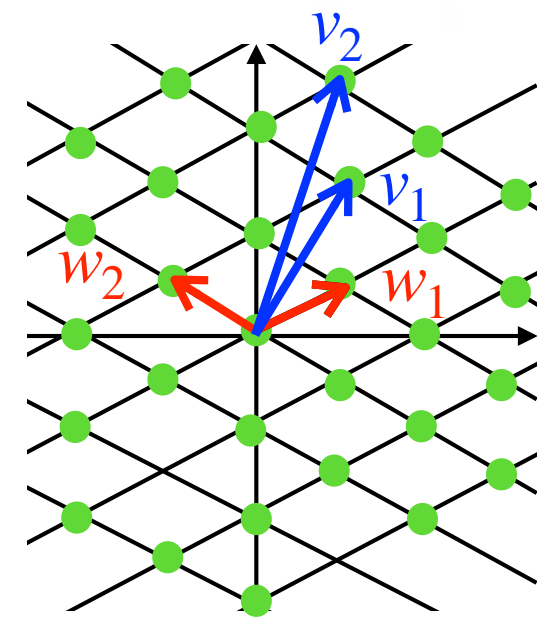
Then, $|\det B|$ is the volume of the parallelotop spanned by $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

Hadamard's Inequality

$$|\det B| \leq \prod_{i=1}^n \|v_i\|_2$$

$\delta(\mathcal{B}) := \frac{\prod_{i=1}^n \|v_i\|_2}{|\det B|}$ is called (*orthogonality*) *defect* of \mathcal{B}

(\mathcal{B} orthogonal $\Rightarrow \delta(\mathcal{B}) = 1$, i.e. it is $\delta(\mathcal{B}) \geq 1$)

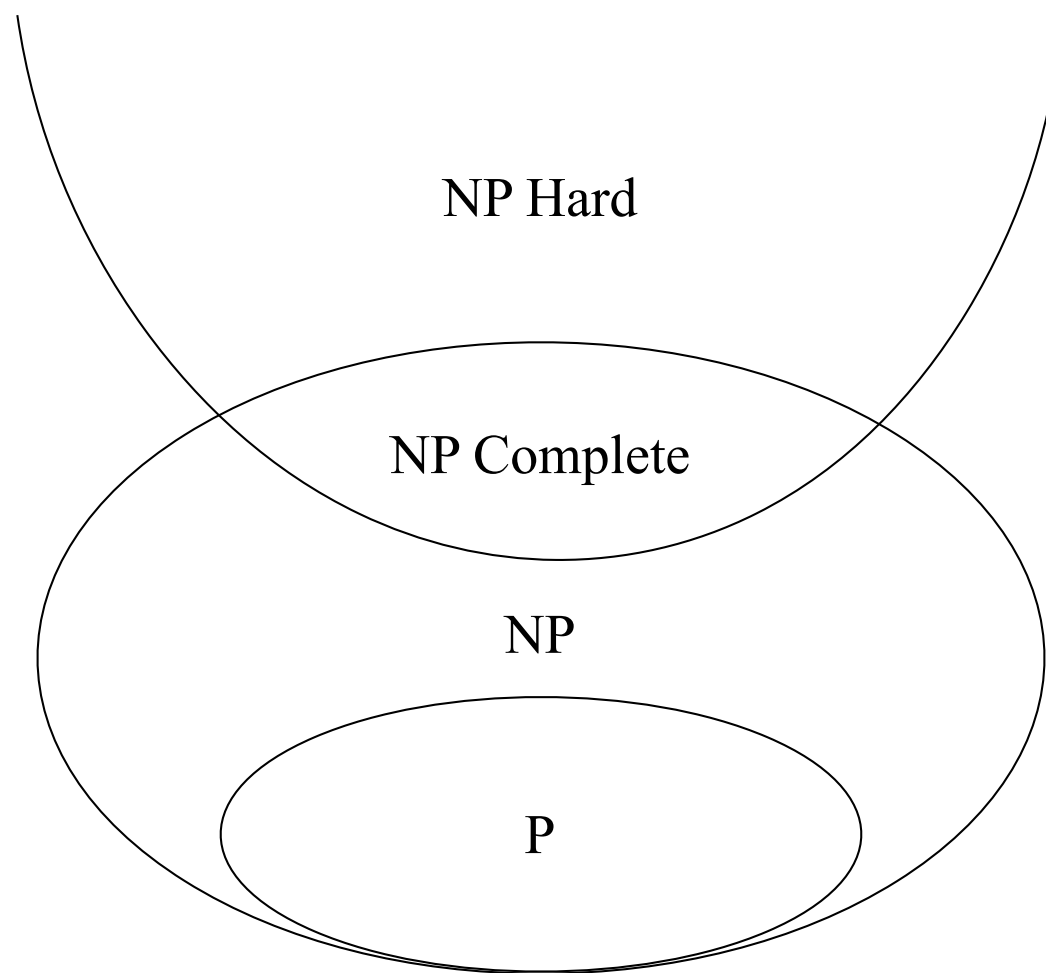


$\{v_1, v_2\}$ original basis,
 $\{w_1, w_2\}$ basis with minimal defect

Lattice-Reduction-Problem:
determine a basis \mathcal{B} for Λ with minimal $\delta(\mathcal{B})$

The Lattice-Reduction-Problem is NP-hard

Reminder: Complexity



Shortest-Vector-Problem

Let $\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ be a lattice of full rank,

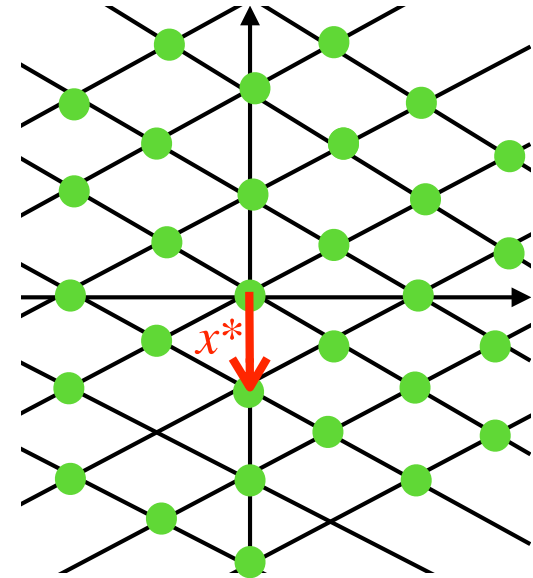
$\|\cdot\|$ a norm on \mathbb{R}^n , $\lambda_1(\Lambda) := \min_{x \in \Lambda \setminus \{0\}} \|x\|$

Shortest-Vector-Problem (SVP):

Determine $x^* \in \Lambda : \|x^*\| = \lambda_1(\Lambda)$

SVP is NP-hard for $\|\cdot\|_2$

SVP is NP-complete for $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$



Shortest-Independent-Vectors

Let $\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ be a lattice of full rank,

let \mathfrak{B} be the set of all bases of Λ and $M(\Lambda) := \min_{\{b_1, \dots, b_n\} \in \mathfrak{B}} \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|b_i\|$

- $M(\Lambda)$ is the minimal length of the longest vector in any basis

Shortest-Independent-Vectors-Problem (SIVP):

Find a basis $\{s_1, \dots, s_n\}$ of Λ with $\max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \|s_i\| = M(\Lambda)$

(Determine a basis with a minimal length of the longest vector in the basis)

SIVP is NP-complete

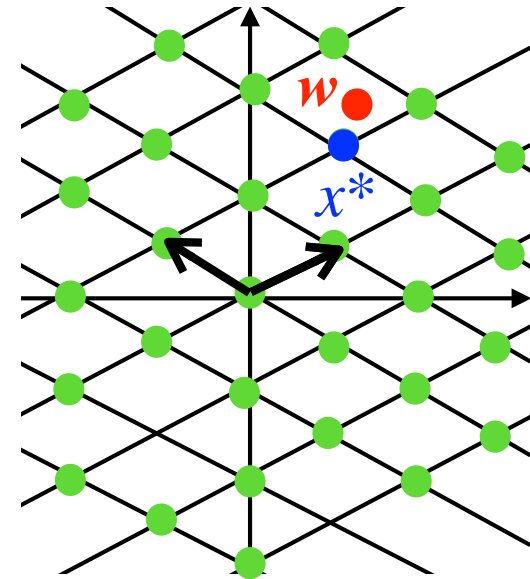
Closest-Vector-Problem

Let $\Lambda_{\mathbb{Z}} \langle v_1, \dots, v_n \rangle$ be a lattice of full rank,

$\|\cdot\|$ a norm on \mathbb{R}^n , $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\text{dist}(\Lambda, w) := \min_{x \in \Lambda} \|x - w\|$

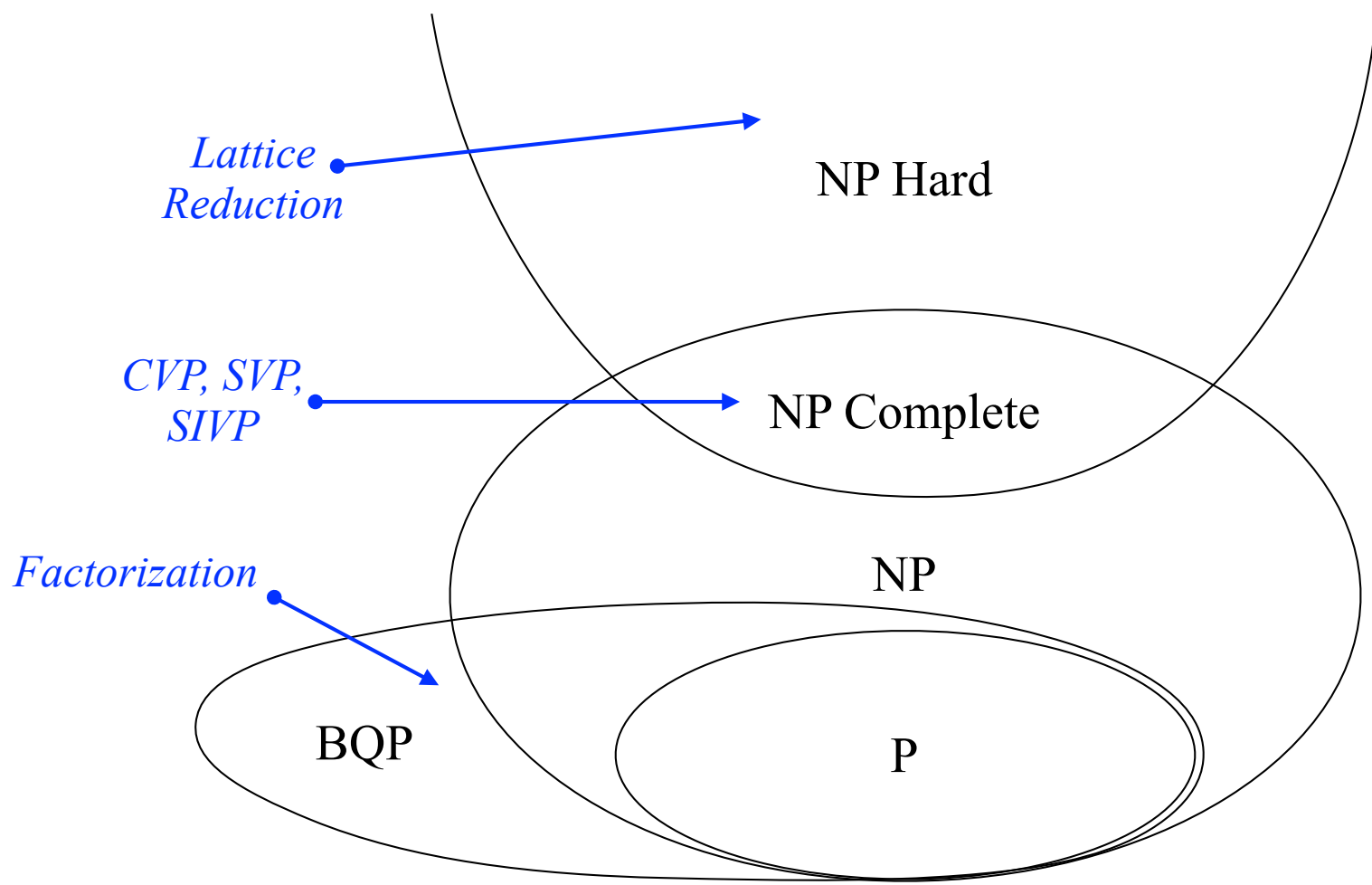
Closest-Vector-Problem (CVP):

Determine $x^* \in \Lambda : \|x^* - w\| = \text{dist}(\Lambda, w)$



CVP is NP-complete

Complexity: Quantum Computing & Lattices



Short Integer Solution:
(see later)
is average-case hard

Prime Factorization:
50% probability that a
randomly chosen number
can easily be factorized:
$$N = 2 \cdot \frac{N}{2}$$

⇒ worst-case hardness

Worst-Case
vs.
Average-Case

Why Lattice-Based Cryptography

Worst-case hardness

- There is a (!) problem instance ("worst case") on which each efficient algorithm fails

Average-case hardness

- A randomly chosen problem instance is as hard to solve as the worst problem instance

Average-case hardness \Rightarrow Worst-case hardness (the reverse is not true!)

Cryptography requires average-case hardness, i.e. worst-case hardness does not suffice

- E.g. encryption must be hard on a random instance, not only on the worst-case instance

For factoring (or discrete logarithm or elliptic curves as used today) it is not known...

- ...whether it is at the end in P or whether it is NP-hard
- ...whether it is average-case hard (i.e. really suitable for cryptography)

Using lattice problems it is possible to construct average-case-hard problems which are just as difficult as certain well-known worst-case-hard problem

Miklós Ajtai: Generating Hard Instances of the Short Basis Problem. (2001) <https://people.csail.mit.edu/vinodv/CS294/ajtai99.pdf>

Short-Integer-Solution

Let $n, m, q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$

Let $A \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$ with $a_{ij} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ uniformly random

β -Short-Integer-Solution-Problem (β -SISP):

Determine $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q^m \setminus \{0\} : Az = 0 \wedge 0 < \|z\| \leq \beta$

- For $\beta \geq \sqrt{mq}^{n/m}$ the β -SISP-Problem has a solution.

There is a polynomial reduction from the
Shortest Independent Vector Problem to the Short Integer Solution Problem

A randomly selected SIVP is as hard as the worst SISP!

In lattice-based cryptography, one-way-functions are constructed based on SISP

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

Polynomial Rings

For a commutative ring R , die *polynomial ring* $R[X]$ is defined as follows:

- A *polynomial* in X over R is an expression $p = a_0 + a_1X + \dots + a_nX^n$ with $a_i \in R$

- For $p = \sum_{i=0}^n a_iX^i$ and $q = \sum_{i=0}^m b_iX^i$ it is

- $p + q = \sum_{i=0}^{\max(m,n)} r_iX^i$ and $r_i = a_i + b_i$

- $p \cdot q = \sum_{i=0}^{m+n} s_iX^i$ with $s_i = a_0b_i + a_1b_{i-1} + \dots + a_ib_0$

An equivalent definition is:

- A *polynomial* over R is a sequence $p : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow R$ with $\text{card}\{i \mid p_i \neq 0\} < \infty$

- $p + q = (a_i + b_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $p \cdot q = \left(\sum_{i+j=k} a_i b_j \right)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$

- With $X := (0, 1, 0, \dots)$ it is $a_0 + a_1X + \dots + a_nX^n \cong (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n, 0, 0, \dots)$

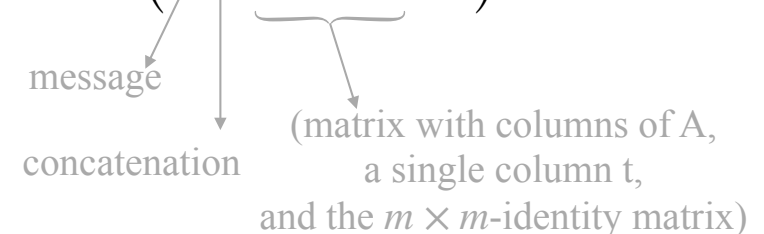
Signatures

Dilithium

- Substituting the field \mathbb{K} of a \mathbb{K} -vector space V by a ring R results in a *module* over R
- Let \mathbb{Z}_q be the ring of integers modulo q
- Then, $R_q := \mathbb{Z}_q[X]/(X^n + 1)$ is a ring (consisting of polynomials)
- Dilithium is using $n = 256$ and the prime $q = 2^{23} - 2^{13} + 1 = 8380417$
- $B_h \subset R_q$: set of polynomials having exactly h coefficients that are $+1$ or -1
- It is $\text{card } B_h = 2^h \binom{n}{h}$; Dilithium is using $h = 60$, resulting in $\text{card } B_h \geq 2^{256}$
- B_{60} is the range of the hash function $\Psi : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow B_{60}$ constructed in Dilithium
- The matrices $R_q^{m \times k}$ are then an R_q module
- Given $A \in R_q^{m \times k}$ and $t \in R_q^m$ (both uniformly random), following *module-SISP* is solved:

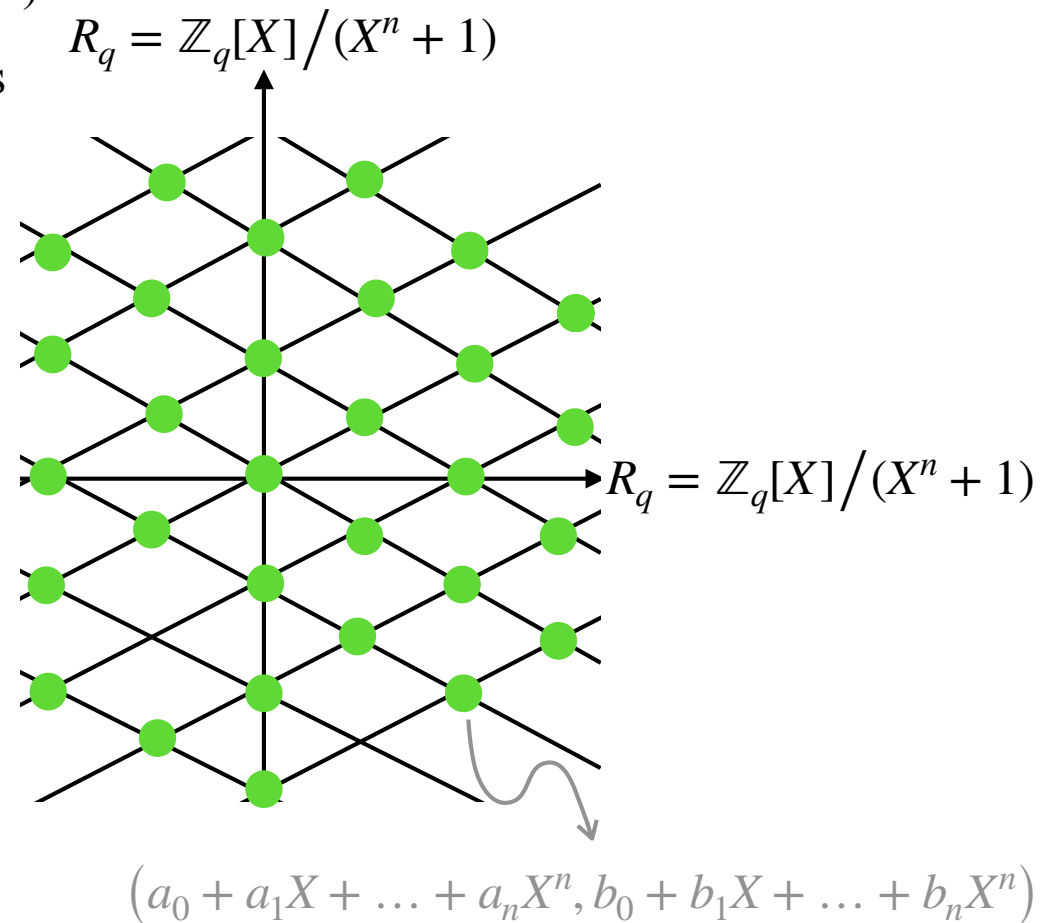
• Given message M , find $y \in R_q^{k+1+m}$ with $0 < \|y\| \leq \beta$ such that $\Psi \left(M \parallel (A \parallel t \parallel E_m) \cdot y \right) = c \in B_{60}$

where $y = \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ c \\ r_2 \end{pmatrix}$ (with $r_1 \in R_q^k$, $c \in B_{60}$, $r_2 \in R_q^m$)



Situation

- We are dealing with "vector spaces" (modules) the points of which are tuples of polynomials
 - ...of degree $n = 256$
- All computations are done mod q , with $q = 8380417$
 - Kyber is using $q = 3329$
- Multiplication of polynomials based on number theoretic transform (NTT)



Dilithium (approximately)

$$\Psi \left(M \parallel (A \mid t \mid E_m) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ c \\ r_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = c$$

Secret Key \uparrow
 Signature on M \uparrow
 Public Key \downarrow

(For details see:

https://uwspace.uwaterloo.ca/bitstream/handle/10012/14832/BakosLang_Elena.pdf

and

<https://pq-crystals.org/dilithium/data/dilithium-specification-round3-20210208.pdf>

Dilithium and LWE

$$\Psi \left(M \parallel (A | t | E_m) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ c \\ r_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = c$$



$$(A | t | E_m) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} r_1 \\ c \\ r_2 \end{pmatrix} = Ar_1 + ct + r_2$$



"error"

Dilithium is an LWE problem

(see next)

Encryption

Learning With Errors

Let $f : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear function

Given samples $\{(x, y)\}$, $x \in V$ and $y \in W$ with $f(x) = y$,

linear algebra makes it easy to determine ("learn") f (Gaussian elimination)

Assume that the input $\{(x, y)\}$ to the "learning algorithm" has errors,

i.e. it is $f(x) \neq y$ for each (x, y) with some small probability

Example: instead of solving $Ax = y$ for each y , a secret random vector e is chosen

(e is "small", i.e. an error) and $Ax + e = y$ is to be solved

- A and y are public, x and e are private

All known algorithms that solve such *Learning-with-Error* problems (LWE) are exponential

LWE hardness

- Lattice-based problems are believed to be intractable assuming LWE is hard
- Under this assumption, SVP can be reduced from worst-case hard to average-case hard
- **Most important**: LWE is proven hard assuming worst-case hardness of SIVP

LWE as Lattice Problem

Reminder: For a matrix M the integer solutions $\{x \in \mathbb{Z}^n \mid Mx = 0\}$ build a lattice

Let $A \in R_q^{n \times m}$ and $b \in R_q^n$

(A, b) is the public key

$$R_q = \mathbb{Z}_q[X]/(X^n + 1)$$

And let $s \in R_q^m$ and $e \in R_q^n$ be "small" vectors

\Rightarrow The LWE problem $As + e = b$ is equivalent to $(A \mid E_n \mid -b) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} s \\ e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$

The solutions of the LWE problem $As + e = b$
 build a lattice $\Lambda := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{Z}^{n+m+1} \mid (A \mid E_n \mid -b) \cdot x = 0 \right\}$

$\begin{pmatrix} s \\ e \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ solves the Shortest Vector Problem for Λ

*Especially:
LWE is a lattice problem!*

s is the private key

Kyber

Public key and private key are computed as before

Kyber is using $N = 256$ and $q = 3329$

Encryption is based on another LWE problem:

- $r \in R_q^n$, $e_1 \in R_q^m$ and $e_2 \in R_q$ are randomly sampled
- First, $\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A^T \\ b^T \end{pmatrix} r + \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \end{pmatrix}$, i.e. $u = A^T r + e_1 \in R_q^m$ and $v = \langle b, r \rangle + e_2 \in R_q$
- Next, the message μ to be encrypted resulting in the modified $v = \langle b, r \rangle + e_2 + \rho(\mu)$
 - ρ is a fancy "rounding" mechanism, $\rho : \{0,1\}^{256} \rightarrow R_q$
 - ρ transforms the message into a polynomial
- But the principle is important: the message μ is hidden in the value v

$\begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix}$ is the encrypted message

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

Industry Awareness

Why Should You Care Today?

Many data that are secret and have to be kept for many years are encrypted with current methods

⇒ These data will be cracked in the foreseeable future!

Harvest now,
decrypt later!

Encryption based on quantum technology requires new (hardware) infrastructure

- E.g. for (symmetric) key exchange

Quantum-safe procedures require changes to the (software) infrastructure

- E.g. new encryption algorithms

⇒ Building this infrastructure takes many years!

Post-Quantum Cryptography (PQC)

(aka: Quantum-Safe, Quantum-Proof or Quantum-Resistant)

...this refers to cryptographic algorithms which, according to today's knowledge, are secure against attacks with a quantum computer

- I.e. no quantum algorithm is known to crack such an algorithm
- Most of the algorithms "common" today are not quantum-safe
 - Factorization, discrete logarithms, elliptical curves

Corresponding procedures are e.g.

- Hash-based cryptography, lattice-based cryptography.

But:

There is no guarantee that these methods cannot be cracked at some point by quantum computers (or even classic computers)!

(see later!)

US Law

Public Law 117 - 260 - Quantum Computing Cybersecurity Preparedness Act

Summary Related Documents ⓘ

Category	Bills and Statutes
Collection	Public and Private Laws
SuDoc Class Number	AE 2.110:117-260
Law Number	Public Law 117-260
Date Approved	December 21, 2022
Full Title	An act to encourage the migration of Federal Government information technology systems to quantum-resistant cryptography, and for other purposes.
Bill Number	H.R. 7535
Report Number	S Rept. 117-251
Statutes at Large Citations	136 Stat. 2389, 2390, 2391 and 2392
United States Code Citations	44 U.S.C. 3502, 3552 and 3553 Chapter 35
Legislative History	LEGISLATIVE HISTORY—H.R. 7535 (S. 4592):

<https://www.govinfo.gov/app/details/PLAW-117publ260>

THE WHITE HOUSE

Administration Priorities The Record Briefing Room Español MENU

MAY 04, 2022

Home **National Security Memorandum on Promoting United States Leadership in Quantum Computing While Mitigating Risks to Vulnerable Cryptographic Systems**

...the United States begins the multi-year process of migrating vulnerable computer systems to quantum-resistant cryptography

<https://www.whitehouse.gov/briefing-room/statements-releases/2022/05/04/national-security-memorandum-on-promoting-united-states-leadership-in-quantum-computing-while-mitigating-risks-to-vulnerable-cryptographic-systems/>

A Quote from the NSA

TECHNOLOGY VENDOR RESPONSIBILITIES

Technology manufacturers and vendors whose products support the use of quantum-vulnerable cryptography should begin planning and testing for integration. CISA, NSA, and NIST encourage vendors to review the NIST-published draft PQC standards, which contain algorithms, with the understanding that final implementation specifics for these algorithms are incomplete. Ensuring that products use post-quantum cryptographic algorithms is emblematic of Secure by Design principles. Vendors should prepare themselves to support PQC as soon as possible after NIST finalizes its standards.

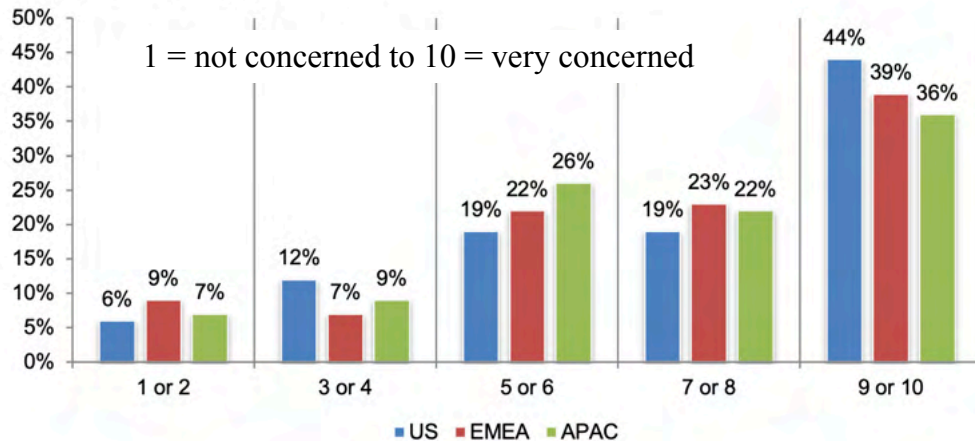
principles. Vendors should prepare themselves to support PQC as soon as possible after NIST finalizes its standards.
incomplete. Ensuring that products use post-quantum cryptographic algorithms is emblematic of Secure by Design

Awareness in Industry

digicert®

Ponemon
INSTITUTE

Figure 19. How concerned are you that your organization will not be prepared to address the security implications of PQC?



Preparing for a Safe Post Quantum Computing Future: A Global Study

Sponsored by DigiCert

Independently conducted by Ponemon Institute LLC

Publication Date: October 2023

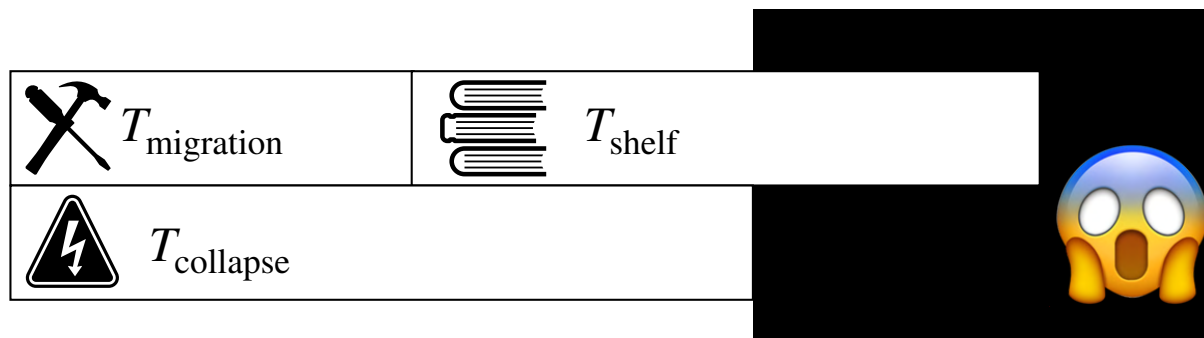
<https://www.digicert.com/content/dam/digicert/pdfs/report/ponemon-preparing-safe-post-quantum-future-report-en-v1.pdf>

How Much Time Do You Have?

(Mosca's Inequality^(*))

- Collapse Time T_{collapse} : number of years until a CRQC is available
- Migration Time $T_{\text{migration}}$: number of years needed to realize a quantum-safe solution
- Shelf-Life Time T_{shelf} : number of years information must be kept secret

You are in trouble if: $T_{\text{shelf}} + T_{\text{migration}} > T_{\text{collapse}}$



The time you have: $T_{\text{migration}}^{\text{max}} := T_{\text{collapse}} - T_{\text{shelf}}$

- Assume $T_{\text{collapse}} = 10 \text{ y}$, $T_{\text{shelf}} = 10 \text{ y}$ \Rightarrow $T_{\text{migration}}^{\text{max}} = 0 \text{ y}$. **You must begin now!**

Secure Communication: Basics

TLS

Protocol for secure data transport based on dynamically established symmetric key

Two phases: (1) TLS Handshake and (2) TLS Record

Handshake performs secure key exchange (and authentication)

- Agree on cypher suite
- Server authenticates itself via certificate; client may do the same
- Client sends secret random number encrypted with server's public key
- ...or Diffie-Hellman is used to derive a shared secret

⇒ symmetric session key

Record uses the negotiated symmetric key to transport data securely

- Data is encrypted by means of the symmetric key
- ...and protected with a message authentication code (MAC)
 - ...symmetric key-based hash of the data

Diffie-Hellman

Algorithm for computing a symmetric key via private keys

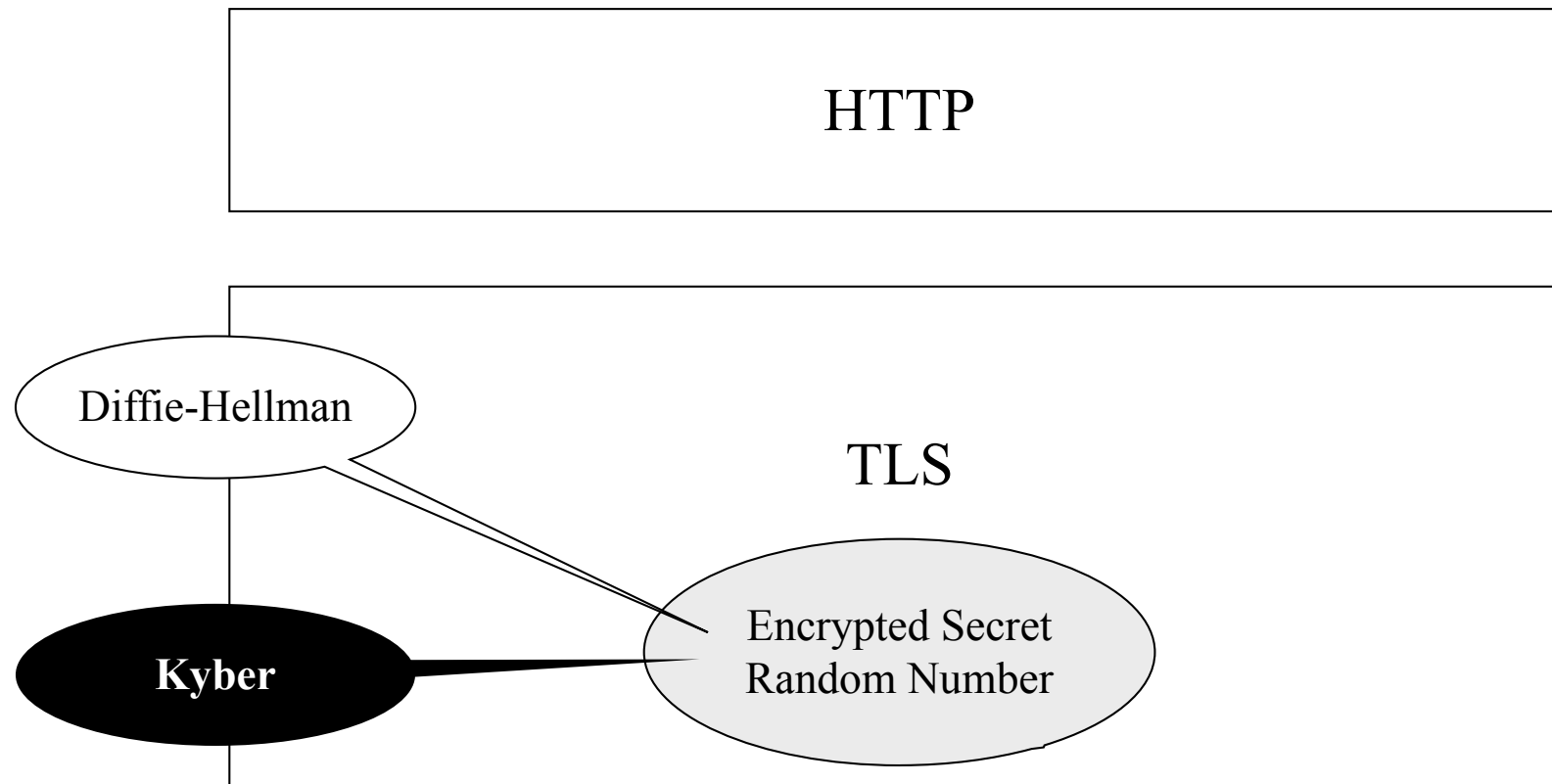
- Alice and Bob agree on prime number $p \in \mathbb{P}$ and $g \in \mathbb{N}$ with $g < p$ (p and g may be public!)
 - Alice and Bob generate their secret keys $a, b \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$
 - Alice computes her public key $A = g^a \bmod p$ and sends it to Bob
 - Bob computes his public key $B = g^b \bmod p$ and sends it to Alice
 - Alice computes $K_1 = B^a \bmod p$
 - Bob computes $K_2 = A^b \bmod p$
- $\left. \begin{array}{l} K_1 = B^a \bmod p \\ K_2 = A^b \bmod p \end{array} \right\} K_1 = K_2 \Rightarrow \text{shared secret key !}$

$$K_1 = B^a \bmod p = (g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p = (g^b)^a \bmod p = g^{ba} \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p$$

$$K_2 = A^b \bmod p = (g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p = (g^a)^b \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p$$

HTTPS

- TLS by default uses build in *encrypted secret random number* mechanism
- Is often substituted by Diffie-Hellmann, e.g.
- Post-quantum resistance may be achieved by using Kyber (e.g.) instead



Ways to Become Quantum Resistant

Let C be a classical security algorithm, and let Q be a corresponding post-quantum algorithm

1. Replace C with Q

- Instead of calling the APIs implementing C , use APIs implementing Q
 - E.g.: instead of using Diffie-Hellman (C) for public-key encryption, use Kyber (Q)

2. Replace C with $C + Q$

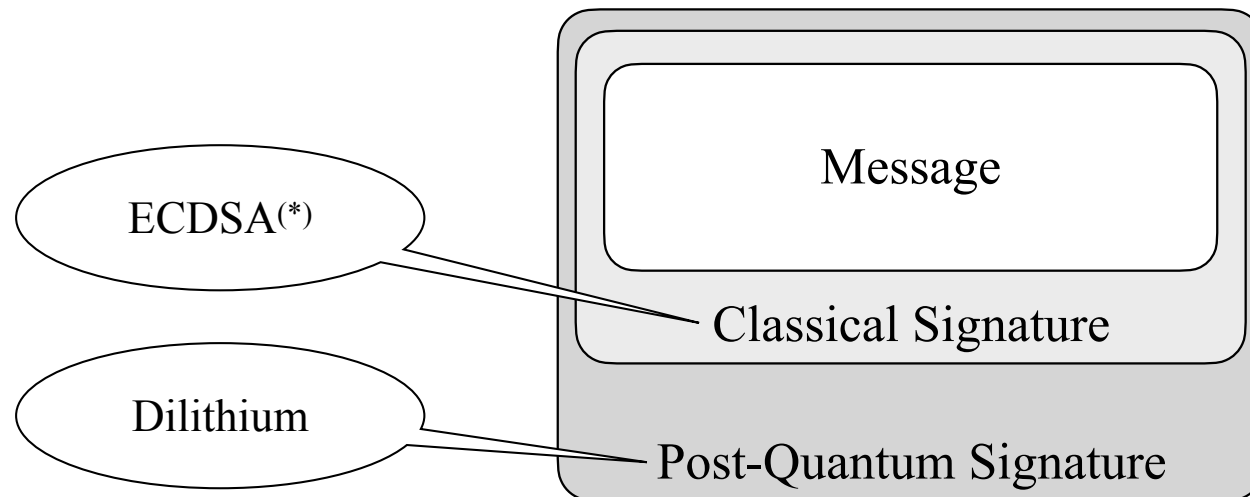
- Use both, C as well as Q in "parallel"
 - E.g.: sign a document both, classically (C) as well as quantum (Q)
- Advantage: this is at least as secure as C only, and allows to gain trust in Q

*...and some variants,
e.g. concat then hash,...*

3. Replace C with $C \circ Q$ (or with $Q \circ C$)

- Use both, C as well as Q one after the other
 - E.g.: sign a document first classically (C) and then with quantum (Q)

Example



C • Q approach

(*) Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm

But This is Not Thus Simple

Some post-quantum algorithms have...

- excessively large signature sizes
- involve excessive processing
- require very large public and/or private keys
- require operations that are asymmetric between sending and receiving parties
- require the responder to generate a message based on the initiator's public value

*Thus, no simple "drop-in"
of the new algorithms*

Secure implementation may need to address issues such as...

- public-key validation
- public-key reuse
- decryption failure even when all parameters are correctly implemented
- select new auxiliary functions (e.g., hash functions used with public-key algorithms for digital signature).

Performance and scalability issues...

- may demand significant modifications to protocols and infrastructures

Sample Discussion of Such Issues

NIST Cybersecurity White Paper

csrc.nist.gov

Getting Ready for Post-Quantum Cryptography:

*Exploring Challenges Associated with Adopting and
Using Post-Quantum Cryptographic Algorithms*

<https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/CSWP/NIST.CSWP.04282021.pdf>

NIST | NATIONAL
CYBERSECURITY
CENTER OF EXCELLENCE

MIGRATION TO POST-QUANTUM CRYPTOGRAPHY (PQC)

<https://www.nccoe.nist.gov/sites/default/files/2023-08/mpqc-fact-sheet.pdf>

QUANTUM-READINESS: MIGRATION TO POST-QUANTUM CRYPTOGRAPHY



NIST | NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
STANDARDS AND TECHNOLOGY
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE

NIST SPECIAL PUBLICATION 1800-38A

Migration to Post-Quantum Cryptography: Preparation for Considering the Implementation and Adoption of Quantum Safe Cryptography

<https://www.nccoe.nist.gov/sites/default/files/2023-04/pqc-migration-nist-sp-1800-38a-preliminary-draft.pdf>

<https://www.nccoe.nist.gov/sites/default/files/2023-08/quantum-readiness-fact-sheet.pdf>

Standardization

NIST PQC

(Post Quantum Cryptography)

Website: <https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/post-quantum-cryptography>

Process to submit, evaluate, recommend, and standardize quantum-safe algorithms

- Started already in 2016

CRYSTALS =
Cryptographic **S**uite for **A**lgebraic **L**attices

What is about to be standardized:

- CRYSTALS–KYBER: public-key encryption and key-establishment algorithm
 - <https://pq-crystals.org/kyber/index.shtml>
 - <https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/html/draft-cfrg-schwabe-kyber-02>
- CRYSTALS–Dilithium, FALCON, and SPHINCS+: digital signatures
 - <https://pq-crystals.org/dilithium/index.shtml>

To be evaluated in future:

- BIKE, Classic McEliece, HQC, and ~~SIKE~~

<https://arstechnica.com/information-technology/2022/08/sike-once-a-post-quantum-encryption-contender-is-koed-in-nist-smackdown/>

NIST IR 8413-upd1
Status Report on the Third Round of the
NIST Post-Quantum Cryptography
Standardization Process

<https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/ir/2022/NIST.IR.8413-upd1.pdf>

Published Standards

(August 2023)

Variant of CRYSTALS–KYBER: public-key encryption and key-establishment algorithm

- Module-Lattice-based Key-Encapsulation Mechanism
 - <https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/FIPS/NIST.FIPS.203.ipd.pdf>

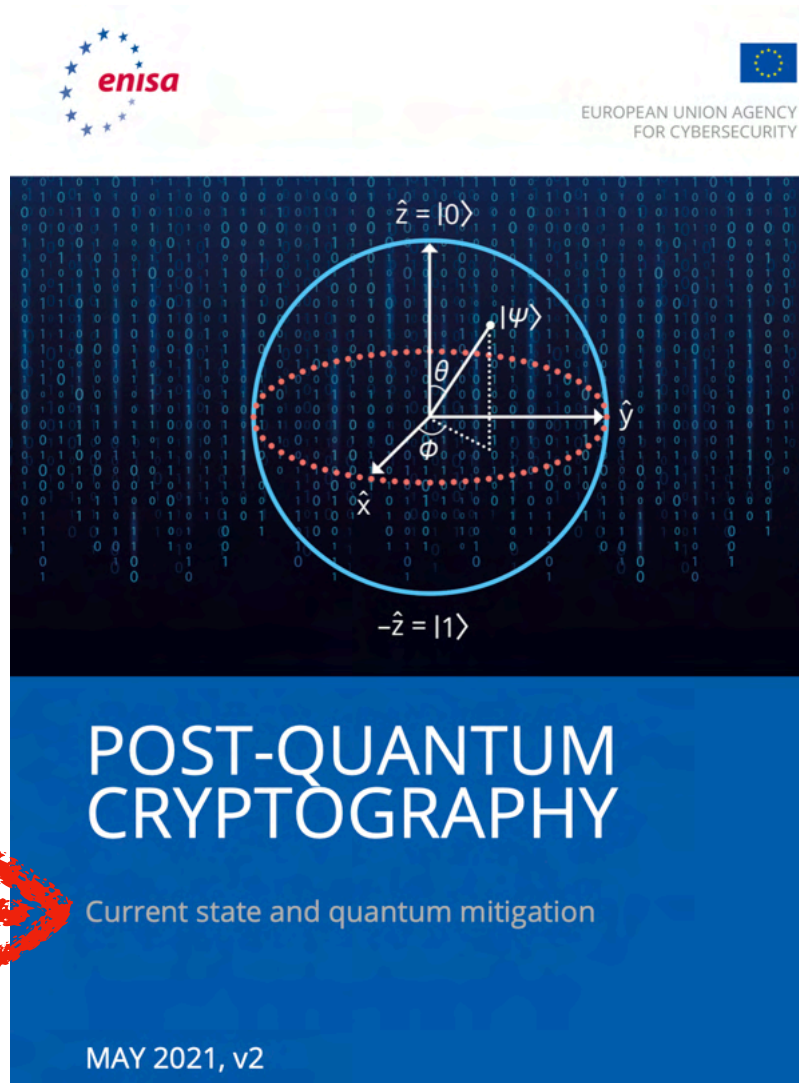
Variant of CRYSTALS-DILITHIUM: digital signature algorithm

- Module-Lattice-Based Digital Signature Standard
 - <https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/FIPS/NIST.FIPS.204.ipd.pdf>

Variant of SPHINCS+: digital signature algorithm

- Stateless Hash-Based Digital Signature Standard
 - <https://nvlpubs.nist.gov/nistpubs/FIPS/NIST.FIPS.205.ipd.pdf>

High-Level Discussions: Standards & Implementations



What others are doing...
(selection only)

AWS Support

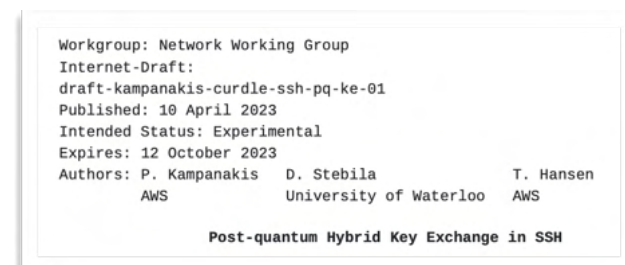
(<https://aws.amazon.com/de/security/post-quantum-cryptography/>)

AWS supports post-quantum cryptography in Key Management Service (KMS), Certificate Manager (ACM), Secrete Manager (ASM)

- Offering TLS endpoints supporting Diffie-Hellman and Kyber $\Rightarrow C + Q$ approach

For example: Secure File Transfer (SFTP)

- Offering SSH (elliptic curve) Diffie-Hellman and Kyber $\Rightarrow C + Q$ approach
- Based on OpenSSH using liboqs (<https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/openssh>)
- ...and WolfSSL (<https://www.wolfssl.com/>)

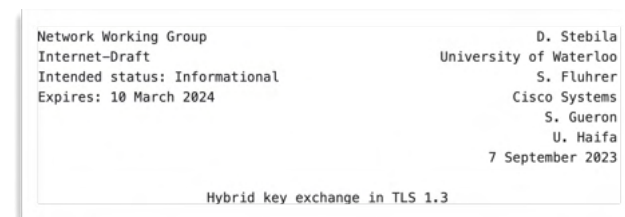


<https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/draft-kampanakis-curdle-ssh-pq-ke/>

For example: post-quantum crypto TLS with KMS API

(<https://docs.aws.amazon.com/kms/latest/developerguide/pqtls.html>)

- Based on open source s2n-tls (<https://github.com/aws/s2n-tls>)
- Used for key-exchange only, no encryption
- Code samples: <https://github.com/aws-samples/aws-kms-pq-tls-example>



<https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/draft-ietf-tls-hybrid-design/>

Microsoft Support

(<https://blogs.microsoft.com/blog/2023/05/31/building-a-quantum-safe-future/>)

Post-quantum crypto VPN

- Based on OpenVPN (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/post-quantum-crypto-vpn/>)
- Used between Redmond und MSFT Underwater Datacenter (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/post-quantum-crypto-tunnel-to-the-underwater-datacenter/>)



<https://eprint.iacr.org/2019/1277.pdf>

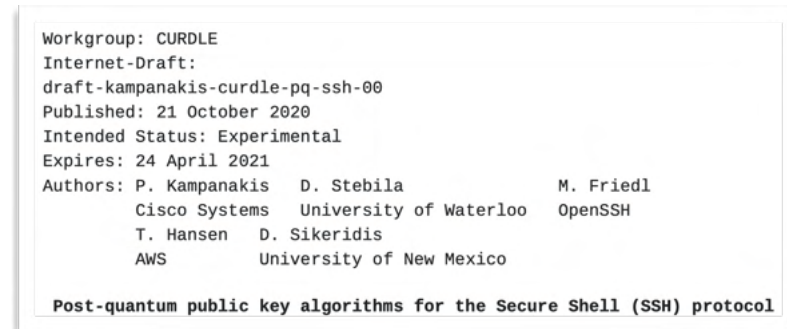
Post-quantum crypto TLS

- Based on OpenSSL (<https://github.com/aws/s2n-tls>)

"...trade-off between network and CPU overhead and the security levels defined by NIST."

Post-quantum crypto SSH

- Based on OpenSSH (<https://www.microsoft.com/en-us/research/project/post-quantum-ssh/>)



<https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/draft-kampanakis-curdle-pq-ssh/>

Google Support

Google protects internal communications from quantum threats

<https://cloud.google.com/blog/products/identity-security/why-google-now-uses-post-quantum-cryptography-for-internal-comms>

C + Q approach

They address "store now, decrypt later" attacks, as these affect our data today

- Signature algorithm threats are not immediate
- Use of NTRU-HRSS (because of lack of some clarification from NIST about Kyber's IP status)
 - In 2016, a NewHope-based implementation of Chrome was released
 - IP issues forced Google to remove the implementation

Support in Chrome 116

- Establishing symmetric keys based on Kyber and Elliptic Curves (X25519)
 - ...over TLS
 - For Google servers over TCP and QUIC

C + Q approach

Collaboration with Cloudflare (see next)

Cloudflare

<https://blog.cloudflare.com/post-quantum-crypto-should-be-free/>

Open source experimental cryptography suite called CIRCL

<https://github.com/cloudflare/circl>

- Tool for experimental deployment of post-quantum cryptographic
- Support of Kyber, Dilithium,...
- Under BSD-3-Clause License.

Application to TLS 1.3 (<https://blog.cloudflare.com/post-quantum-for-all/>)

<https://blog.cloudflare.com/the-tls-post-quantum-experiment/>

- ...nice reading :-)
- Based on BoringSSL and Go

<https://blog.cloudflare.com/experiment-with-pq/#boringssl>

C + Q approach

Application to Cloudflare Tunnel (<https://blog.cloudflare.com/post-quantum-tunnel/>)

Implementing and Measuring KEMTLS

Sofia Celi¹, Armando Faz-Hernández¹, Nick Sullivan¹, Goutam Tamvada², Luke Valenta¹,
Thom Wiggers³, Bas Westerbaan⁴, and Christopher A. Wood¹

IBM

IBM ... z16 is ... quantum-safe system ... to protect data against future threats ... [of] quantum computing.

- *...help businesses tackle threats such as “harvest now, decrypt later” attacks*

Quantum-safe cryptography support for key management and transactions in IBM Cloud

- Data exchange between cloud secured by using a quantum-safe algorithm

IBM Key Protect provides lifecycle management for encryption keys

- Use a quantum-safe cryptography enabled Transport Layer Security (TLS) connection

OpenShift

- Quantum-safe cryptography secured TLS connections to protect data-in-transit

WSO2

<https://wso2.com/>

- Quantum resistant communication with/in products
 - API Manager, Identity Server, Choreo

- Protect identities against quantum attacks
 - Identity Server, Asgardeo

- *Ballerina as quantum resistant programming language*
 - ...a language for building cloud-native applications
 - ...a language for realizing integration solutions

- Based on liboqs

<https://ballerina.io/>

WolfSSL

Quantum resistant cURL

- TLS 1.3 using WolfSSL

(<https://www.wolfssl.com/post-quantum-curl/>)

Quantum resistant MQTT

(<https://www.wolfssl.com/wolfmqtt-post-quantum-kyber-falcon/>)

X9

<https://x9.org/new-update-to-cryptographic-key-management-standard/>

Financial Industry standards

X9.69 Framework For Key Management Extensions

- \approx Methods for generation and control of keys used in symmetric cryptographic algorithms
- Includes methods for quantum computing protection
- Framework supporting an algorithm at any key length
- Support compliance with HIPAA, Europe's GDPR and other privacy regulations

Open Source that is available

All implementations have the caveat
that they are experimental prototypes
and that they don't guarantee
production readiness!

OQS: Open Quantum Safe

(<https://openquantumsafe.org/>)

Open-source project to support development and prototyping of quantum-resistant cryptography

Two main lines of work

- liboqs — open source C library for quantum-resistant cryptographic algorithms
- Prototype integrations into protocols and applications

Everything is in Github repositories

Lots of contributors

(from companies like AWS, IBM, Microsoft, Cloudflare, Intel, Cisco as well as universities)

liboqs

(<https://openquantumsafe.org/liboqs/>)

(<https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/liboqs>)

Open source C library for quantum-safe cryptographic algorithms (MIT license)

[But it uses some third-party libraries with different licenses: list is provided!]

- Implementations of key encapsulation mechanisms (KEM) and digital signature algorithms
- Common API for these algorithms
<https://openquantumsafe.org/liboqs/api/>
- Test and benchmarking routines

Wrappers for C++, Go, Rust, Java, .Net, Python

<https://openquantumsafe.org/liboqs/wrappers>

Multi-platform

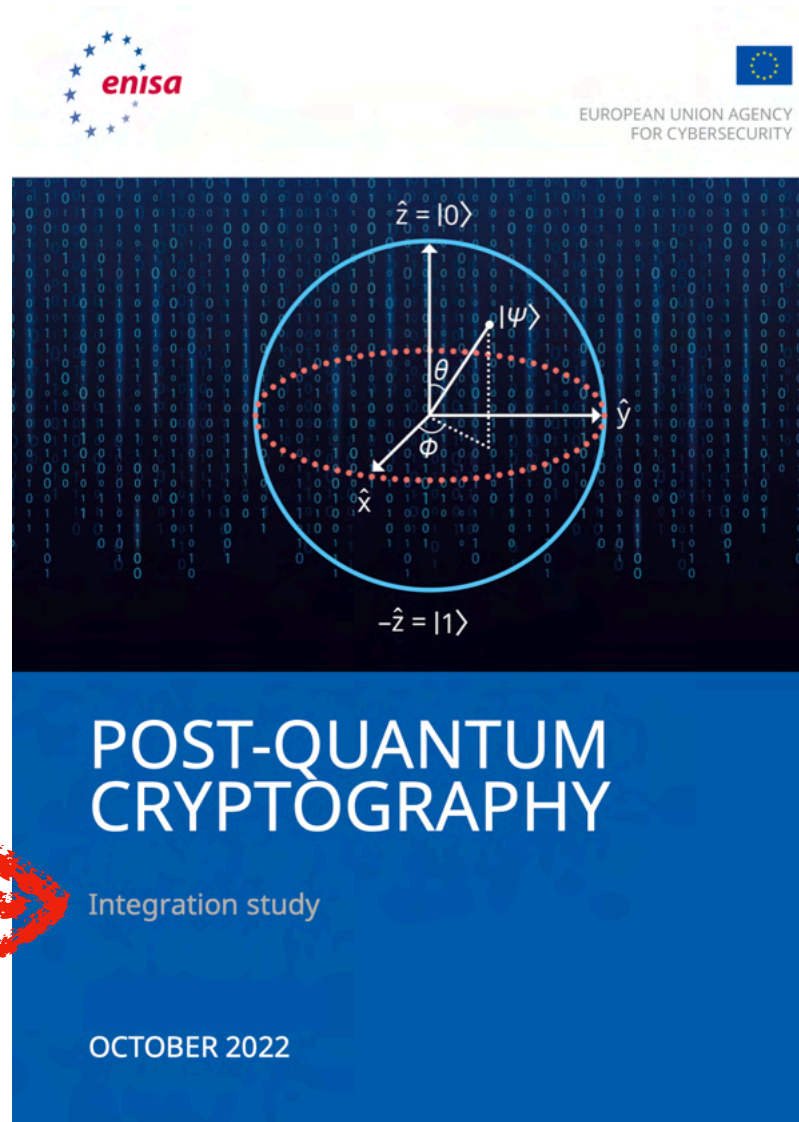
- Linux, macOS, Windows
- x86_64 and ARM (no ARM for Windows)
- clang, gcc, MSFT compilers

Algorithms include Kyber and Dilithium (<https://openquantumsafe.org/liboqs/algorithms/>)

Applications to several protocols available

- TLS, SSH, X.509, S/MIME (<https://openquantumsafe.org/applications/>)
- External usages (<https://openquantumsafe.org/applications/external.html>)

How to Build Protocols & Applications With These Standards



OQS-OpenSSH

(<https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/openssh>)

OQS-OpenSSH is a fork of OpenSSH that adds quantum-safe cryptography to enable its use and evaluation in the SSH protocol.

- Part of the Open Quantum Safe (OQS) project,
- Uses liboqs

Key-Exchange: based on Kyber and others

Digital Signature: based on Dilithium and others

OQS-OpenSSL

(<https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/openssl>)

OQS-OpenSSL is a fork of OpenSSL that adds quantum-safe cryptography in TLS 1.3

- Part of the Open Quantum Safe (OQS) project,
- Uses liboqs

Key-Exchange: based on Kyber and others

Digital Signature: based on Dilithium and others

OQS Demos

(<https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos>)

These demos show how to enable quantum-safe cryptography in various applications

- Part of the Open Quantum Safe (OQS) project,
- Uses liboqs
- Include pre-build Docker files und build instructions

Supported are, e.g.:

- curl — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/curl>
- vpn — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/openvpn>
- httpd — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/httpd>
- nginx — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/nginx>
- envoy — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/envoy>
- mosquitto — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/mosquitto>
- haproxy — <https://github.com/open-quantum-safe/oqs-demos/tree/main/haproxy>

Dilithium

Reference implementation: <https://github.com/pq-crystals/dilithium>

But also: <https://github.com/itzmeanjan/dilithium>

- Zero-dependency, header-only C++ library
- offering key generation, signing & verification API
- for three NIST security level (i.e. 2, 3, 5) parameters

Algorithm	What does it do ?
KeyGen	It takes a 32 -bytes seed, which is used for deterministically computing both public key and secret key i.e. keypair.
Sign	It takes a secret key and a N (>0) -bytes message as input, which is used for deterministically (default)/ randomly (in this case, you must supply 64 uniform random sampled bytes as seed) signing message, producing signature bytes.
Verify	It takes a public key, N (>0) -bytes message and signature, returning boolean value, denoting status of successful signature verification operation.

NIST Security Level	2	3	5
Output Size			
public key size (bytes)	1312	1952	2592
signature size (bytes)	2420	3293	4595

Key Generation

```
#include "dilithium2.hpp"
#include "prng.hpp"

int main() {
    uint8_t seed[32];
    uint8_t pubkey[dilithium2::PubKeyLen];
    uint8_t seckey[dilithium2::SecKeyLen];

    // Sample seed bytes from PRNG
    prng::prng_t prng;
    prng.read(seed, sizeof(seed));

    dilithium2::keygen(seed, pubkey, seckey);

    // ...

    return 0;
}
```

Computing Signature

```
int main() {  
  
    uint8_t msg[32];  
    uint8_t sig[dilithium2::SigLen];  
  
    // Sample psuedo-random message, to be signed  
    prng.read(msg, sizeof(msg));  
  
    // Default behaviour is deterministic signing and  
    // you can safely pass null pointer for last parameter  
    // i.e. random seed. It won't be access, in case you adopt  
    // default deterministic signing.  
    dilithium2::sign(seckey, msg, mlen, sig, nullptr);  
  
    // ...  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

Verifying Signature

```
int main() {  
  
    bool flg = dilithium2::verify(pubkey, msg, mlen, sig);  
    assert(flg);  
  
    return 0;  
}
```

Kyber

Reference implementation: <https://github.com/pq-crystals/kyber>

But also: <https://github.com/itzmeanjan/kyber>

- Zero-dependency, header-only C++ library
- offering public key encryption and key encapsulation mechanism API
- only works with 32 byte messages

Algorithm	Input	Output
PKE KeyGen	-	Public Key and Secret Key
Encryption	Public Key, 32 -bytes message and 32 -bytes random coin	Cipher Text
Decryption	Secret Key and Cipher Text	32 -bytes message

KYBER512

Sizes (in Bytes)

sk: 1632 (or 32)

pk: 800

ct: 768

KYBER768

Sizes (in Bytes)

sk: 2400 (or 32)

pk: 1184

ct: 1088

KYBER1024

Sizes (in Bytes)

sk: 3168 (or 32)

pk: 1568

ct: 1568

Usage

```

main()
{
    ...

    prng::prng_t prng;

    prng.read(d, sizeof(d));
    prng.read(z, sizeof(z));
    prng.read(m, sizeof(m));

    kyber512_kem::keygen(d, z, pkey, skey);
    auto skdf = kyber512_kem::encapsulate(m, pkey, cipher);
    auto rkdf = kyber512_kem::decapsulate(skey, cipher);

    uint8_t sender_key[32]{};
    skdf.squeeze(sender_key, sizeof(sender_key));

    uint8_t receiver_key[32]{};
    rkdf.squeeze(receiver_key, sizeof(receiver_key));

    assert(std::ranges::equal(sender_key, receiver_key));
    return 0;
}

```

On 12th Gen Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1260P [Compiled with GCC]

2023-06-08T17:00:31+04:00

Running ./bench/a.out

Run on (16 X 3562.43 MHz CPU s)

CPU Caches:

L1 Data 48 KiB (x8)

L1 Instruction 32 KiB (x8)

L2 Unified 1280 KiB (x8)

L3 Unified 18432 KiB (x1)

Load Average: 0.43, 0.40, 0.39



Benchmark	Time	CPU	Iterations	items_per_second
dilithium2_keygen	59.5 us	59.4 us	11768	16.8301k/s
dilithium2_sign/32	189 us	189 us	3696	5.28747k/s
dilithium2_verify/32	65.9 us	65.9 us	10567	15.1858k/s
dilithium3_keygen	98.2 us	98.2 us	7140	10.1804k/s
dilithium3_sign/32	933 us	933 us	2529	1071.29/s
dilithium3_verify/32	105 us	105 us	6653	9.4921k/s
dilithium5_keygen	164 us	164 us	4374	6.11558k/s
dilithium5_sign/32	273 us	273 us	2560	3.65763k/s
dilithium5_verify/32	173 us	173 us	4052	5.78499k/s

Message Signing Algorithm (Deterministic)	Min. Exec. Time	Max. Exec. Time	Median Exec. Time	Mean Exec. Time
Dilithium2	122 us	987 us	256 us	351 us
Dilithium3	182 us	1309 us	417 us	526 us
Dilithium5	274 us	2603 us	533 us	610 us

On 12th Gen Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1260P [Compiled with Clang]

2023-06-08T17:15:22+04:00

Running ./bench/a.out

Run on (16 X 3436.72 MHz CPU s)

CPU Caches:

L1 Data 48 KiB (x8)

L1 Instruction 32 KiB (x8)

L2 Unified 1280 KiB (x8)

L3 Unified 18432 KiB (x1)

Load Average: 0.60, 0.66, 0.58



Benchmark	Time	CPU	Iterations	items_per_second
dilithium2_keygen	45.4 us	45.3 us	15245	22.0851k/s
dilithium2_sign/32	277 us	277 us	3828	3.60687k/s
dilithium2_verify/32	50.7 us	50.7 us	13791	19.7402k/s
dilithium3_keygen	77.8 us	77.7 us	9010	12.8624k/s
dilithium3_sign/32	331 us	331 us	5199	3.02039k/s
dilithium3_verify/32	81.2 us	81.2 us	8599	12.3189k/s
dilithium5_keygen	127 us	127 us	5537	7.87793k/s
dilithium5_sign/32	576 us	575 us	1000	1.73773k/s
dilithium5_verify/32	134 us	134 us	5199	7.4441k/s

Message Signing Algorithm (Deterministic)	Min. Exec. Time	Max. Exec. Time	Median Exec. Time	Mean Exec. Time
Dilithium2	88.5 us	749 us	230 us	258 us
Dilithium3	135 us	1509 us	299 us	425 us
Dilithium5	210 us	1313 us	302 us	467 us

Crypto Agility

Crypto-Agility

...meant to protect against the failure of encryption procedures

- Since (some) post-quantum procedures may also be cracked, the new infrastructure must make it as easy as possible to exchange such procedures
- Instead of a simple exchange, there are also approaches to combine procedures in such a way that the overall procedure remains secure, even if a procedure involved is cracked

<https://www.nccoe.nist.gov/crypto-agility-considerations-migrating-post-quantum-cryptographic-algorithms>



The screenshot shows a webpage from the National Cybersecurity Center of Excellence (NCCOE) at NIST. The page is titled "Migration to Post-Quantum Cryptography" and features a navigation bar with links for "SECURITY GUIDANCE", "OUR APPROACH", "NEWS & INSIGHTS", "GET INVOLVED", and a "SEARCH" button. The main content area includes a large, abstract graphic of a blue and yellow digital tunnel. Below the title, there is a paragraph of text discussing the impact of quantum computing on current cryptographic algorithms and the need for migration to post-quantum cryptography.

NIST | NATIONAL CYBERSECURITY CENTER OF EXCELLENCE

SECURITY GUIDANCE | OUR APPROACH | NEWS & INSIGHTS | GET INVOLVED | SEARCH

Migration to Post-Quantum Cryptography

The advent of quantum computing technology will compromise many of the current cryptographic algorithms, especially public-key cryptography, which is widely used to protect digital information. Most algorithms on which we depend are used worldwide in components of many different communications, processing, and storage systems. Once access to practical quantum computers becomes available, all public-key algorithms and associated protocols will be vulnerable to criminals, competitors, and other adversaries. It is critical to begin planning for the replacement of hardware, software, and services that use public-key algorithms now so that information is protected from future attacks.

Crypto-Agility: Open Source



What is Sandwich?

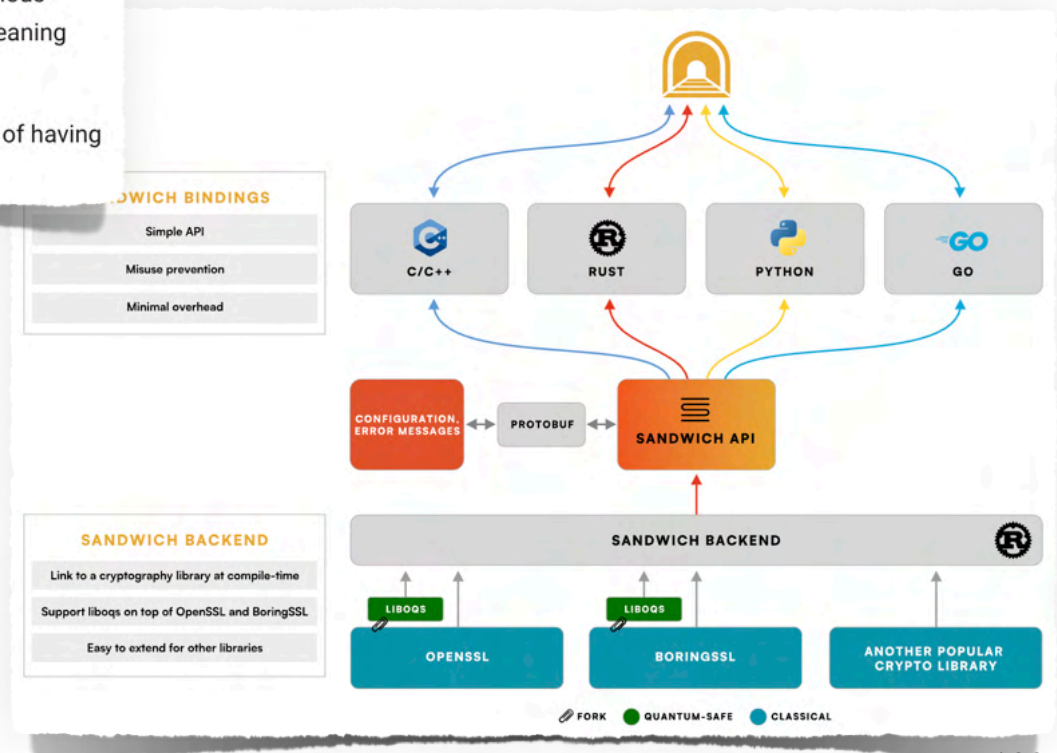
Sandwich provides a simple, unified, and hard to misuse API for developers to use cryptographic algorithms and protocols of their choice in their applications. Sandwich is written in [Rust](#), and provides a [C API](#) with bindings for [Python](#) and [Go](#). This API is implemented through various cryptographic libraries (OpenSSL and BoringSSL), and in particular supports [libOQS](#), meaning **Sandwich enables post-quantum cryptography**.

One goal of the library is to enable dynamic cryptographic agility, without the necessity of having to recompile or redeploy updated software.

<https://sandbox-quantum.github.io/sandwich/>



<https://www.sandboxaq.com/solutions/sandwich>



Sandwich



<https://go.sandboxaq.com/rs/175-UKR-711/images/Sandwich-datasheet.pdf>

v0.1.0: initial public version Latest

Initial public version

▼ **Assets** 6

sandwich-linux-amd64-v0.1.0.tar.bz2	28.4 MB	Aug 8
sandwich-linux-arm64-v0.1.0.tar.bz2	25.3 MB	Aug 8
sandwich-macos-arm64-v0.1.0.tar.bz2	21.4 MB	Aug 8
sandwich-macos-x86_64-v0.1.0.tar.bz2	25.3 MB	Aug 8
Source code (zip)		Aug 8
Source code (tar.gz)		Aug 8

<https://github.com/sandbox-quantum/sandwich/releases>

<https://github.com/sandbox-quantum/sandwich>

Agenda

Classical Encryption & Discrete Logarithms

Quantum Computing & Discrete Logarithms (Shor)

Lattice-Based Cryptography

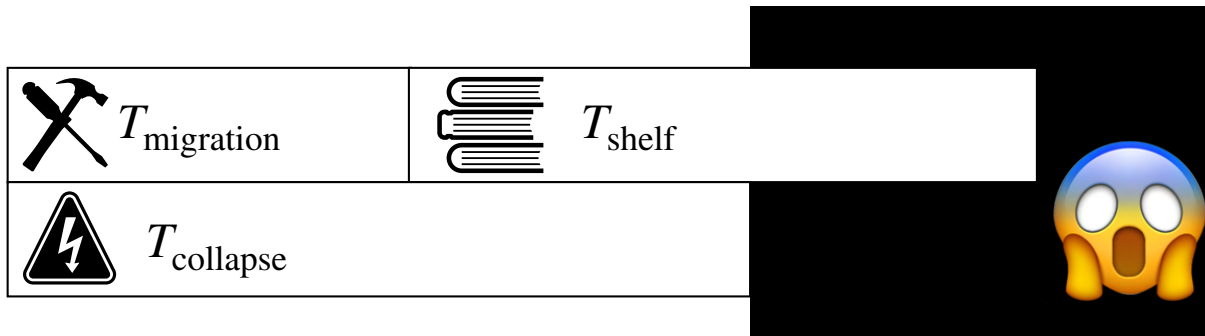
Dilithium & Kyber

NIST & Industry

Summary

Summary

- Today's crypto infrastructure relies on hardness of discrete logarithm problem
- Quantum computers will be able to crack this infrastructure mid-term
- Lattice-based cryptography seems to be a rescue
- Standards for post-quantum security are under way
- Except for "big players", industry awareness for the problem is lacking
- Open source prototypes are available
- Quantum-safe infrastructure must be agile



The End