# Post-quantum cryptography 

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## Motivation: quantum computers

Quantum computers represent a huge potential threat to existing public-key cryptosystems: RSA, ECC, etc.

- Transitioning cryptographic algorithms takes time. If you wait until the threat arrives, it's too late.
- NIST is currently finalizing its first suite of post-quantum cryptosystems (2024) and evaluating additional candidates for signatures (2024-2027).
- Only public-key cryptography is threatened.

Post-quantum public-key cryptosystems:

- Lattice-based cryptography
- Code-based cryptography
- Multivariate polynomials
- Hash-based cryptography
- Isogeny-based cryptography


## Lattices

## Definition

A lattice is a discrete subgroup of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$.

- subgroup - closed under addition and subtraction.
- discrete - there exists a minimum distance $\varepsilon$ between distinct points
- Typically in cryptography we have $n>500$


## Shortest vector problem

## Definition

Given $\left\{\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{m}\right\}$, find a nonzero $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{m}\right)$ of smallest norm.

Variants include:

- Approximate SVP: Find $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ within a factor of $\gamma$ of smallest norm.
- Decision SVP: Given $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{L} \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}$, determine whether $\mathbf{v}$ has smallest possible norm.
- Approximate Decision SVP, etc.



## Closest vector problem

## Definition

Given $\mathbf{v}$ and $\left\{\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{m}\right\}$, find $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{b}_{1}, \ldots, \mathbf{b}_{m}\right)$ minimizing $|\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{v}|$.

Variants include:

- Approximate CVP: Find $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{L}$ such that $|\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{v}|$ is within a factor of $\gamma$ of smallest possible.
- Decision CVP: Given $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{L}$, determine if $|\mathbf{w}-\mathbf{v}|$ is as small as possible.
- Approximate Decision CVP, etc.



## Codes



## Repetition code

| Source message | Codeword | \# errors/codeword that can be detected | \#errors/codeword that can be corrected | Information rate |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 00 | 1 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2}$ |
| 1 | 11 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 000 | 2 | 1 | $\frac{1}{3}$ |
| 1 | 111 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 0000 | 3 | 1 | $\frac{1}{4}$ |
| 1 | 1111 |  |  |  |
| 0 | 00000 | 4 | 2 | $\frac{1}{5}$ |
| 1 | 11111 |  |  |  |
|  |  | $\vdots$ |  |  |
| 0 | $0^{n}$ | $n-1$ | $\left\lfloor\frac{n-1}{2}\right\rfloor$ | $\frac{1}{n}$ |
| 1 | $1^{n}$ |  |  |  |

## Terminology

- An alphabet is a finite set of $q \geq 2$ symbols. (e.g. $A=\{0,1\}$ )
- A word is a finite sequence of symbols from $A$. (also: vector, tuple)
- The length of a word is the number of symbols in it.
- A code over $A$ is a set of words (of size $\geq 2$ ).
- A codeword is a word in the code.
- A block code is a code in which all codewords have the same length.
- A block code of length $n$ containing $M$ codewords over $A$ is called an [ $n, M$ ]-code over $A$. (Hence such a code is a subset $C \subset A^{n}$, with $|C|=M$.)


## Hamming distance

## Definition

The Hamming distance between two words of length $n$ is

$$
d(x, y)=\#\left\{i \in\{1, \ldots, n\}: x_{i} \neq y_{i}\right\}
$$

The Hamming distance of a block code is

$$
d(C)=\min \{d(x, y): x, y \in C, x \neq y\}
$$

$d(x, y)$ is actually a metric: For all $x, y, z$,

- $d(x, y) \geq 0$
- $d(x, y)=0$ if and only if $x=y$
- $d(x, y)=d(y, x)$
- $d(x, z) \leq d(x, y)+d(y, z)$


## Example

$C=\{00000,11100,00111,10101\}$ is a $[5,4]$ code over $A=\{0,1\}$. We might encode messages as follows:

| Message |  | Codeword |
| :---: | :--- | :---: |
| 00 | $\longrightarrow$ | 00000 |
| 01 | $\longrightarrow$ | 00111 |
| 10 | $\longrightarrow$ | 11100 |
| 11 | $\longrightarrow$ | 10101 |

## Linear codes

## Definition

Let $F$ be a finite field of size $q$. A linear code is a block code $C \subset F^{n}$ of length $n$ over $F$ such that $C$ is a vector subspace of $F^{n}$.

- If $C \subset F^{n}$ is a linear code of dimension $k$ (as a vector space over $F$ ), we say $C$ is an ( $n, k$ )-code.
- An $(n, k)$-code has $q^{k}$ codewords, so it is an $\left[n, q^{k}\right]$-code over $F$.
- The information rate of an $(n, k)$-code is $\frac{k}{n}$.


## Hamming weight

## Definition

The Hamming weight of a vector $v \in F^{n}$ is

$$
w(v)=d(\mathbf{0}, v)
$$

The Hamming weight of a linear code $C$ is

$$
w(C)=\min \{w(c): c \in C \backslash\{\mathbf{0}\}\} .
$$

## Theorem

For a linear code $C, w(C)=d(C)$.

## Proof.

$$
d(C)=\min \{d(x, y): x \neq y\}=\min \{w(x-y): x \neq y\}=\min \{w(c): c \neq \mathbf{0}\}=w(C) .
$$

## Encoding

Let $C$ be an $(n, k)$-code. A natural way to encode messages is

$$
\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \mapsto m_{1} v_{1}+m_{2} v_{2}+\cdots+m_{k} v_{k}
$$

where $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}\right\}$ is a basis for $C$.

## Definition

A generator matrix $G$ for an $(n, k)$-code $C$ is a $k \times n$ matrix whose rows form a basis for $C$ over $F$.

## Example

A generator matrix $G$ is in standard form if $G=\left[I_{k} \mid A\right]$ for some $k \times(n-k)$ matrix $A$.

## Example

$$
G=\left[\begin{array}{|ccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
(000) & \mapsto(00000) \\
(001) & \mapsto(00110) \\
(010) & \mapsto(01001) \\
(011) & \mapsto(01111) \\
(100) & \mapsto(10011) \\
(101) & \mapsto(10101) \\
(110) & \mapsto(11010) \\
\underbrace{(111)}_{\text {source }} & \mapsto \underbrace{(11100)}_{\text {codewords }}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Systematic codes

- A linear code $C$ is systematic if there exists a generator matrix for $C$ in standard form.
- Two linear codes are equivalent if there exists a permutation of coordinates which maps one code into the other.
- Theorem: Every linear code is equivalent to a systematic code.


## Dual code

## Definition

Let $C$ be an $(n, k)$-code over $F$. The dual code $C^{\perp}$ of $C$ is

$$
C^{\perp}=\left\{x \in F^{n}: x \cdot y=0 \text { for all } y \in C\right\}
$$

A parity-check matrix for $C$ is a generator matrix $H$ for $C^{\perp}$.

## Properties:

- If $C$ is an $(n, k)$-code over $F$, then $C^{\perp}$ is an $(n, n-k)$-code over $F$.
- $\left(C^{\perp}\right)^{\perp}=C$.
- If $C$ is systematic with generator matrix $G=\left[I_{k} \mid A\right]$, then $H=\left[-A^{T} \mid I_{n-k}\right]$ is a generator matrix for $C^{\perp}$ (and a parity-check matrix for $C$ ).
- For all $x \in F^{n}, x \in C$ if and only if $H x^{T}=\mathbf{0}$.


## Hamming code

We often define codes by their parity-check matrix. For example

$$
H=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

defines a $(7,4)$-code over $\mathbb{F}_{2}$, with generator matrix

$$
G=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

This particular code is a Hamming code of distance 3.

## Decoding example

For the $(7,4)$ Hamming code with parity-check matrix

$$
H=\left[\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1
\end{array}\right]
$$

- Suppose we receive $r=(0111110)$.
- We compute $H r^{T}=(011)^{T}$.
- This is not zero, so $r \notin C$.
- However, if we set $e=(0000100)$, then $\mathrm{He}^{T}=(011)^{T}$.
- Hence $H(r-e)^{T}=(000)^{T}$, so $c=r-e=(0111010)$ is a codeword.
- Since $d(c, r)=1$, it is likely that $c$ was the intended codeword.


## Syndrome decoding

## Definition

For an $(n, k)$-code $C$ with parity-check matrix $H$, the syndrome of a vector $x \in F^{n}$ is the (column) vector

$$
s=H x^{T} \in\left(F^{n-k}\right)^{T} .
$$

Properties:

- The syndrome of a codeword is $\mathbf{0}^{T}$.
- Two vectors in $F^{n}$ are in the same coset of $C$ if and only if they have the same syndrome.
- Syndrome decoding: Make a giant table of every possible syndrome and the corresponding intended codeword. This table has $q^{n-k}$ entries.
- Decoding an arbitrary linear code optimally is known to be NP-hard.


## McEliece cryptosystem

- Public parameters: $\mathbb{F}, n, k, t$ with $k<n$
- Key generation:
- Choose an ( $n, k$ )-code $C$ such that $C$ can correct $t$ errors and $C$ admits an efficient decoding algorithm $A$ (e.g. a binary Goppa code).
- Let $G$ be the generator matrix for $C$.
- Choose a random invertible $k \times k$ matrix $S$ and a random $n \times n$ permutation matrix $P$.
- The public key is the $k \times n$ matrix $\hat{G}=S G P$. The private key is $A$.
- Encryption: To encrypt $\mathbf{m} \in \mathbb{F}^{k}$ :
- Choose a random vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{F}^{n}$ of weight $t$.
- The ciphertext is $\mathbf{c}=\mathbf{m} \hat{G}+\mathbf{z}$.
- Decryption: To decrypt c:
- Compute $\hat{\mathbf{c}}=\mathbf{c} P^{-1}$.
- Use the decoding algorithm $A$ to decode $\hat{\mathbf{c}}$ to $\hat{\mathbf{m}}$.
- Output $\mathbf{m}=\hat{\mathbf{m}} S^{-1}$.


## Elliptic curves

## Definition

An elliptic curve over a field $F$ is a nonsingular curve $E$ of the form

$$
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b
$$

for fixed constants $a, b \in F$.

The set of projective points on an elliptic curve forms a group.


## Isogenies

## Definition

An isogeny is a morphism $\phi$ of algebraic varieties between two elliptic curves, such that $\phi$ is a group homomorphism.

Concretely:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \phi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime} \\
& \phi(x, y)=\left(\phi_{x}(x, y), \phi_{y}(x, y)\right) \\
& \phi_{x}(x, y)=\frac{f_{1}(x, y)}{f_{2}(x, y)} \\
& \phi_{y}(x, y)=\frac{g_{1}(x, y)}{g_{2}(x, y)}
\end{aligned}
$$

( $f_{1}, f_{2}, g_{1}$, and $g_{2}$ are all polynomials)

## Degree 2 example

- Let $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b$.
- Suppose ker $\phi=\{\infty, P\}$. Then $P+P=\infty$, so $P=\left(x_{P}, 0\right)$ with $x_{P}^{3}+a x_{P}+b=0$.
- We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E^{\prime}: y^{2}=x^{3}+\left(a-5\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)\right) x+\left(b-7 x_{P}\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)\right) \\
& \phi(x, y)=\left(x+\frac{3 x_{P}^{2}+a}{x-x_{P}}, y-\frac{y\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)}{\left(x-x_{P}\right)^{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Degree 3 example

- Let $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b$.
- Suppose ker $\phi=\{\infty, P,-P\}$. Then $P=\left(x_{P}, y_{P}\right)$ with $3 x_{P}^{4}+6 a x_{P}^{2}-a^{2}+12 b x_{P}=0$ and $y_{P}^{2}=x_{P}^{3}+a x_{P}+b$.
- We have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& E^{\prime}: y^{2}=x^{3}+\left(a-10\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)\right) x+\left(b-28 y_{P}^{2}-14 x_{P}\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)\right) \\
& \phi(x, y)=\left(x+\frac{2\left(3 x_{P}^{2}+a\right)}{x-x_{P}}+\frac{4 y_{P}^{2}}{\left(x-x_{P}\right)^{2}}, y-\frac{8 y y_{P}^{2}}{\left(x-x_{P}\right)^{3}}-\frac{2 y\left(3 x_{P}+a\right)}{\left(x-x_{P}\right)^{2}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Supersingular Isogeny Key Encapsulation (NIST Round 4 Candidate)

Based on Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman (Jao \& De Feo, 2011)
(1) Public parameters: Supersingular elliptic curve $E$ over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$.
(2) Alice chooses a kernel $A \subset E\left[2^{e}\right] \subset E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)$ of size $2^{e}$ and sends $E / A$ and $\left.\phi_{A}\right|_{E\left[3^{f}\right]}$.

- Bob chooses a kernel $B \subset E\left[3^{f}\right] \subset E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)$ of size $3^{f}$ and sends $E / B$ and $\left.\phi_{B}\right|_{E\left[2^{e}\right]}$.
- The shared secret is

$$
E /\langle A, B\rangle=(E / A) / \phi_{A}(B)=(E / B) / \phi_{B}(A) .
$$

Diffie-Hellman (DH)
SIDH


## CSIDH (2018) — Castryck, Lange, Martindale, Panny, Renes

Based on Couveignes (1996), Rostovstev \& Stolbunov (2006), using supersingular curves to obtain smooth order kernels.
(1) Public parameters: Supersingular elliptic curve $E / \mathbb{F}_{p}$ with $G=\mathrm{Cl}\left(\operatorname{End}_{p}(E)\right)$.
(2) Alice chooses $\mathfrak{a} \in G$ and sends $\mathfrak{a} * E=E /\{P \in E: \forall \phi \in \mathfrak{a}, \phi(P)=\infty\}$
(0) Bob chooses $\mathfrak{b} \in G$ and sends $\mathfrak{b} * E$.

- The shared secret is $(\mathfrak{a b}) * E=\mathfrak{a} *(\mathfrak{b} * E)=\mathfrak{b} *(\mathfrak{a} * E)$.



## Isogeny-based signature schemes

SIDH signatures (surprisingly, still viable)
(1) Public key: $(E, E / A)$
(2) Commitment: $E / B$

- Challenge: $c \in\{1,2,3\}$
(-) Response: $\phi_{c}$
SIDH


SeaSign / CSI-FiSh signatures
(1) Public key: $E, \mathfrak{a} * E$
(2) Commitment: $\mathfrak{b} * E$
( Challenge: $c \in\{0,1\}$

- Response: $\phi_{\mathfrak{b a}^{-c}}$



## Optimizations

- Hashing: Publish $H(\mathfrak{b} * E)$ instead of $\mathfrak{b} * E$
- Multiple challenges: Use $n$ simultaneous commitments $\mathfrak{b}_{1}, \mathfrak{b}_{2}, \ldots, \mathfrak{b}_{n}$
- Twists: Commit to $\mathfrak{b} * E$ and $\mathfrak{b}^{-1} * E$ simultaneously Optimizing for shortest $\mid \mathrm{pk}+$ sig $\mid$ :

| $\mid$ sk $\mid$ | $\|\mathrm{pk}\|$ | $\mid$ sig $\mid$ | KeyGen | Sign | Verify |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16 B | 512 B | 956 B | 400 ms | 1.48 s | 1.48 s |

Note: "CSI-FiSh really isn't polynomial-time" (https://yx7.cc/blah/2023-04-14.html)


## SQISign

De Feo, Kohel, Leroux, Petit, Wesolowski
(1) Public key: $E, E_{A}, \tau$
(2) Commitment: $E_{1}$

- Challenge: $\phi$

- Response: $\sigma$

| $\mid$ sk $\mid$ | $\mid$ pk $\mid$ | $\mid$ sig $\mid$ | KeyGen | Sign | Verify |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 16 B | 64 B | 204 B | 0.6 s | 2.5 s | 50 ms |

