

Agenda

- 5 Trends in Cryptography
 - Computation over Private Data
 - Post-Quantum Cryptography

Computation over private data (CoPD)

Idea: Perform operations over private data without revealing information.

More formally: Given private data $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ and a function f , compute $f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ without leaking information about $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$.

- ◇ Generate non-leakable data $(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ from $(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$

$$(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) = \Phi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$$

- ◇ Design a cryptographic primitive Π such that

$$\Pi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n) = f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$$

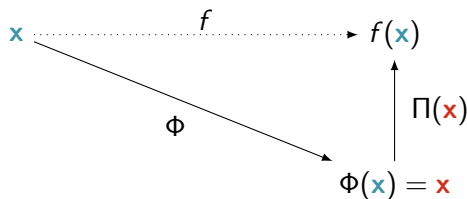
- ◇ One can recover $f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ using only non-leakable data $(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ by executing $\Pi(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$

Computation over Private Data (CoPD)

$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$: Initial data

$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$: Non-leakable data

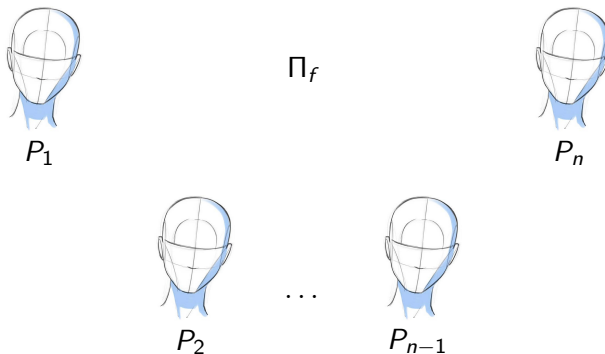
$f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$: Expected computation



Warning: No privacy guarantee if $f(\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)$ leaks information on $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$

Multi-Party Computation (MPC)

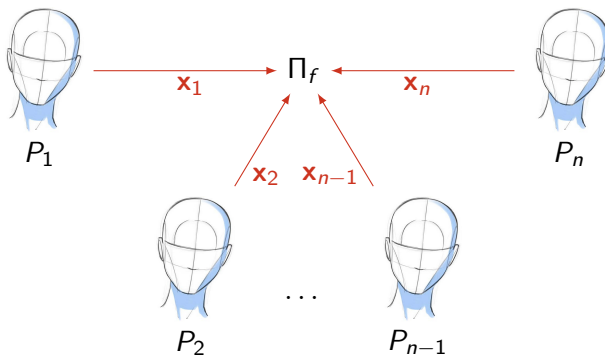
Idea: Suppose there is n parties P_i each getting input x_i . At the end of the protocol, each party should only know its input x_i and $y = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$.



Applications: Secure comparison, set intersection, auctions...

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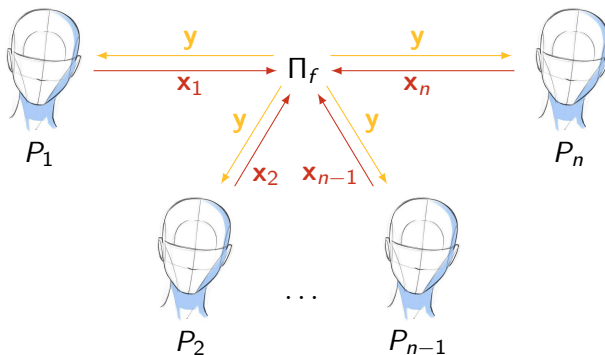
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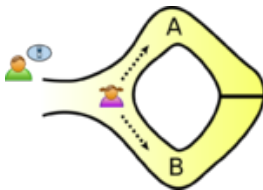


Applications: Secure comparison, set intersection, auctions...

Zero Knowledge (ZK)

Idea: Proving the knowledge of some information x without leaking any other information about it

Example: The cave and the magic door.



The prover get through the door with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Repeat the process.

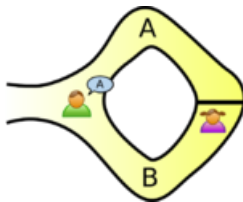
Applications: Authentication, signature, cryptocurrencies...

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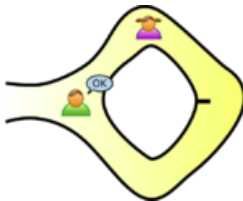
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Zero Knowledge (ZK)

*Idea: Proving the knowledge of some information **x** without leaking any other information about it*

Challenge: Pick a card at random. How to prove its color (club, diamond, spade or heart) in zero-knowledge?



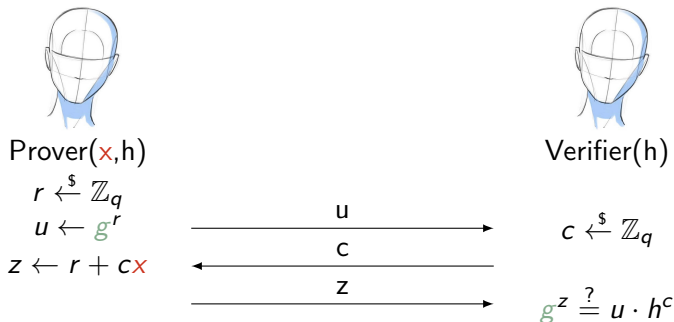
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img src: https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Pick_a_card.jpg

Example: Schnorr's signature

\mathbb{G} a group with generator g

Goal: Prove the knowledge of x such that $h = g^x \in \mathbb{G}$



Completeness: $g^z = g^{r+cx}$ and $u \cdot h^c = g^r \cdot (g^x)^c = g^{r+cx}$

HVZK of Schnorr's signature

Goal: Construction of a simulator able to output values indistinguishable from a legit signature and without knowledge of x

$$\mathcal{D}_1 = \{(g^r, c, r + cx) : r, c \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q\}$$

$$\mathcal{D}_2 = \{(u, c, z) : c, z \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, g^z = u \cdot h^c\}$$

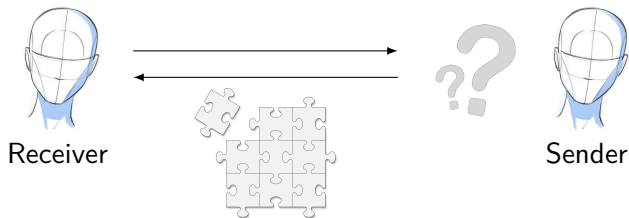
$$S(h) : \begin{array}{ll} 1. z \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q & 2. c \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q \\ 3. u \leftarrow \frac{g^z}{h^c} & 4. \text{output}(u, c, z) \end{array}$$

z random imply u random and output \mathcal{D}_2 identically distributed as \mathcal{D}_1

Why HVZK and not ZK? Because a malicious verifier could choose c adaptively (not randomly)

Oblivious Transfert (OT)

Idea: Protocol in which a sender transfers one of potentially many pieces of information to a receiver, but remains oblivious as to what piece (if any) has been transferred.



First form of oblivious transfert was introduced in 1981 by Michael O. Rabin



Oblivious Transfert (OT)



Receiver
 $\{m_0, m_1\}$

$$r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$$

$$u = g^r$$

$$v_0 = h_0^r \cdot m_0$$

$$v_1 = h_1^r \cdot m_1$$

\mathbb{G} a cyclic group
 g a generator of \mathbb{G}



Sender
Chooses $\sigma \in \{0, 1\}$

$$h_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{G}$$

$$a_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_q \text{ and } h_1 = g^{a_1}$$

$$\{h_0, h_1\}$$

$$\{u, v_0, v_1\}$$

$$u^{a_1} = (g^r)^{a_1} = h_1^r$$

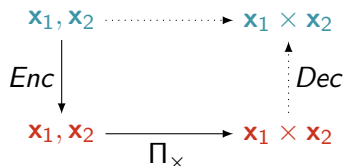
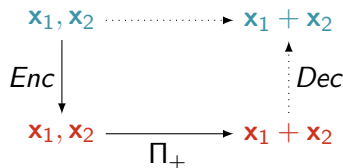
$$\frac{v_1}{u^{a_1}} = \frac{h_1^r \cdot m_1}{h_1^r} = m_1$$

Fully Homomorphic Encryption (FHE)

Idea: Fully Homomorphic Encryption allows operations directly over the encrypted values

$$\Pi(\mathbf{x}_1) + \Pi(\mathbf{x}_2) = \Pi_+(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$\Pi(\mathbf{x}_1) \times \Pi(\mathbf{x}_2) = \Pi_\times(\mathbf{x}_1 \times \mathbf{x}_2)$$

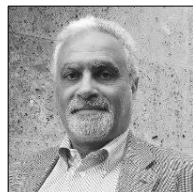


Partially Homomorphic Encryption

A partially homomorphic encryption scheme allows only addition or multiplication of ciphertexts

Example: The ElGamal encryption scheme

- ◇ Public key encryption scheme
- ◇ Based on Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- ◇ Described by Taher ElGamal in 1985
- ◇ Used in GPG and PGP



Partially Homomorphic Encryption

ElGamal encryption scheme:

<p>Ambient space:</p> <p>\mathbb{G} a cyclic group of order q g a generator of \mathbb{G} A message M</p>	<p>Key Generation:</p> <p>$x \xleftarrow{\\$} \llbracket 1, q-1 \rrbracket$ $h = g^x$ $pk : h$ $sk : x$</p>
<p>Encryption(M, pk)</p> <p>Map M to $m \in \mathbb{G}$ $y \xleftarrow{\\$} \llbracket 1, q-1 \rrbracket$ $s = h^y$ (shared secret) $(c_1 = g^y, c_2 = m \cdot s)$</p>	<p>Decryption(c_1, c_2, sk)</p> <p>$c_1^x = g^{xy} = h^y = s$ Calculates s^{-1} $c_2 \cdot s^{-1} = m \cdot s \cdot s^{-1} = m$ Recover M from m</p>

Partially Homomorphic Encryption

ElGamal encryption compatibility with multiplication:

1st ciphertext: ($c_{11} = g^{y_1}$, $c_{12} = m_1 \cdot s_1$) with $s_1 = h^{y_1}$

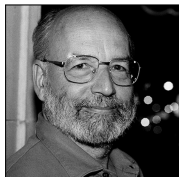
2nd ciphertext: ($c_{21} = g^{y_2}$, $c_{22} = m_2 \cdot s_2$) with $s_2 = h^{y_2}$

$$c_{11} \cdot c_{21} = g^{y_1+y_2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} c_{12} \cdot c_{22} &= m_1 \cdot s_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot s_2 \\ &= m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot h^{y_1} \cdot h^{y_2} \\ &= m_1 m_2 \cdot h^{y_1+y_2} \end{aligned}$$

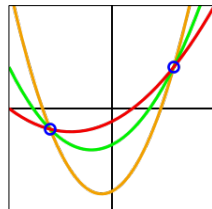
($c_{11}c_{21}$, $c_{12}c_{22}$) is a ciphertext of $m_1 m_2$

Secret Sharing



Shamir's secret sharing idea: Two points are sufficient to define a line, three to define a parabola, four to define a cubic curve and so forth...

- ◇ **Secret:** Intersection between a polynomial P of degree $k - 1$ and the ordinate axis
- ◇ **Shares:** n different points of the polynomials
- ◇ Knowledge of k points let you reconstruct P by interpolation
- ◇ Given $k - 1$ different points, every point in the ordinate axis could still be the secret



Introduction to quantum computing

- ◇ **Quantum mechanics:** Branch of physics that studies natural phenomena occurring at atomic scale
- ◇ **Quantum computing:** Study of computation systems that make use of quantum mechanical phenomena
- ◇ Introduced by Richard Feynman in 1982

“Anyone who claims to understand quantum theory is either lying or crazy”

Richard Feynman



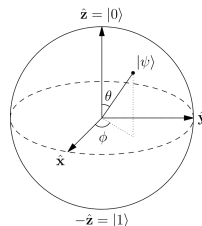
Post-quantum vs quantum cryptography

- ◇ **Cryptography:** Cryptographic algorithms over classical computers and aimed to be secured against attacks on classical computers
- ◇ **Post-quantum cryptography:** Cryptographic algorithms over classical computers and aimed to be secured against attacks on both classical and quantum computers
- ◇ **Quantum cryptography:** Cryptographic algorithms over quantum computers and aimed to be secured against attacks on both classical and quantum computers

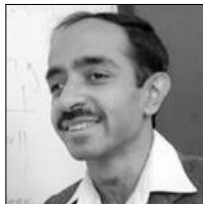
Classical vs quantum computers

	Classical computer	Quantum computer
Composition	Transistor	Any physical particle that can have two properties at the same time
Computation model	Bits: 0 or 1	QuBits: Linear combination of 0 and 1
During computation	1 state of N bits	2^N states of N bits
End of computation	1 state of N bits	1 states of N bits (probabilistic)

- ◇ A quantum computer is **not** a super fast classical computer
- ◇ A quantum computer is **not** a computer that computes all solutions in parallel



Quantum computers vs cryptography



Algorithm	Grover (1996)	Shor (1994)
Impact	Symmetric cryptography Hash function	Asymmetric cryptography
Problem	Key brute force search Collision brute force search	Integer factorization Discrete logarithm
Classical computing	Exponential complexity	Sub-exponential complexity
Quantum computing	Sub-exponential complexity	Polynomial complexity (n^3)
Consequences	Problem easier than expected	Problem no longer difficult

Impact of quantum computers on cryptography

Algorithm	Impact of quantum computers
AES	Larger key sizes needed 256 bits for a 128-bits security level $[\times 2]$
SHA-2, SHA-3	Larger output needed 384 bits for a 128-bits security level $[\times 3]$
RSA	No longer secure
DSA, ECDSA	No longer secure
DH, ECDHE	No longer secure



Quantum computers development

- ◇ Quantum computers with 4000 to 6000 qubits are a threat to cryptography
- ◇ Estimations for large scale quantum computers availability range from 15 to 20 years
- ◇ Industry migration will take time and will be complex
- ◇ Some applications already need quantum resistant cryptography

