Post-Quantum Cryptography:

From the Point of View of Hardware Security

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SECURED EMBEDDED ARCHITECTURE LABORATORY



SECURITY COMPUTATION TTACK SECURITY COMPUTATION KHUDRA OPTIMIZATION MICRO GALOIS TVILA PARALLEL

FIBONACCI PUF DEGREE ERROR TEMPLATE WATERMARKING BLOCK PRIME HASH GROUP PREDICTOR SBOX POWER ECC RSA
COMMUNICATION FIELD SWARM ENTROPY
SYSTEM LFSR CIPHER FAULT GRAIN CACHE
CORRECTION BRANCH CRYPTANALYSIS FUNCTION
STREAM

VECTOR COUNT BYTE DECRYPTION MACHINE LOGARITHM
TROJAN PERMUTATION MACHINE LOGARITHM
EMBEDDED AES CORRELATION SIDE-CHANNEL CODING ALGEBRAIC



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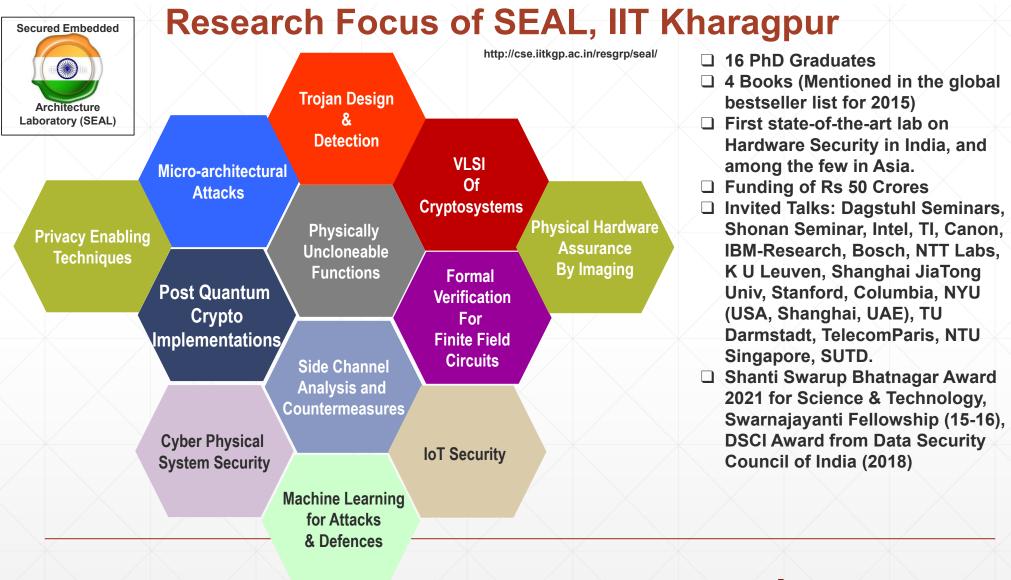
Dr Durba Chatterjee, Radboud Univ, Netherlands.



Dr Akashdeep Saha, NYU USA/AD.



Dr Anirban Chakraborty, MPI/Ruhr Univ, Germany.



A Quick Look into SEAL, IIT Kharagpur



<u>Best Lab Demo at IEEE International Conference on PHYSICAL ASSURANCE and INSPECTION of ELECTRONICS (PAINE) https://paine-conference.org/paine-2023-winners/</u>

Shor's Algorithm

"Post-Quantum" Cryptomania







Public-Key
Cryptography
(in a quantum world)



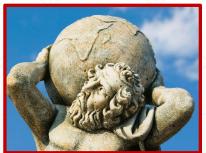




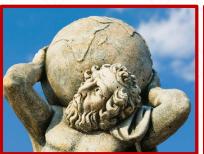
Discrete Log Land



Factorization Land



Lattice Land



Code Land



Isogeny Land

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 vulnerable
- Quantum Computing can solve classical hard problems efficiently!

Stepping into the Post-Quantum world

 What we want from (post-quantum)cryptography: Informally, a user would like to protect confidential data from being recovered by both classical and quantum adversary.

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 - Random Oracle Model
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 - Random Oracle Model
 - Used extensively to model a classical adversary
 - Gives the adversary the capability of querying a black-box hash function
 - (Quantum-accessible) Random Oracle Model
 - Models a quantum adversary
 - Gives the adversary the capability to query in superposition, a special property in quantum physics in which a particle (like a photon) can co-exist in multiple states at the same time (thus allowing parallel computation capability)

Roadmap of developing PQ Cryptosystems

- An overview on developing a PQ Cryptosystem
 - Step 1: Define new hard problems secure in ROM and QROM security models
 - Step 2: Build cryptosystems atop it, and reduce their security to that of the hard problem
 - Sample reduction statement: "If <X> hard problem is secure against a polybounded adversary in ROM and QROM security model, then my cryptosystem <C> is also secure against a poly-bounded classical and quantum adversary"

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 - Step 3: Set parameter levels for the cryptosystem, allowing for implementation optimizations at the software level
 - Step 4: Look for hardware/software co-design (or complete hardware) acceleration
 - Step 5: Look and secure the cryptosystem against side-channels

Step 1: Define new hard problems secure in ROM and QROM security models

PQ resistant hard problems

Several types:

Code-based : based on linear codes

Multivariate-based : based on multivariate polynomials

Lattice-based : based on lattices

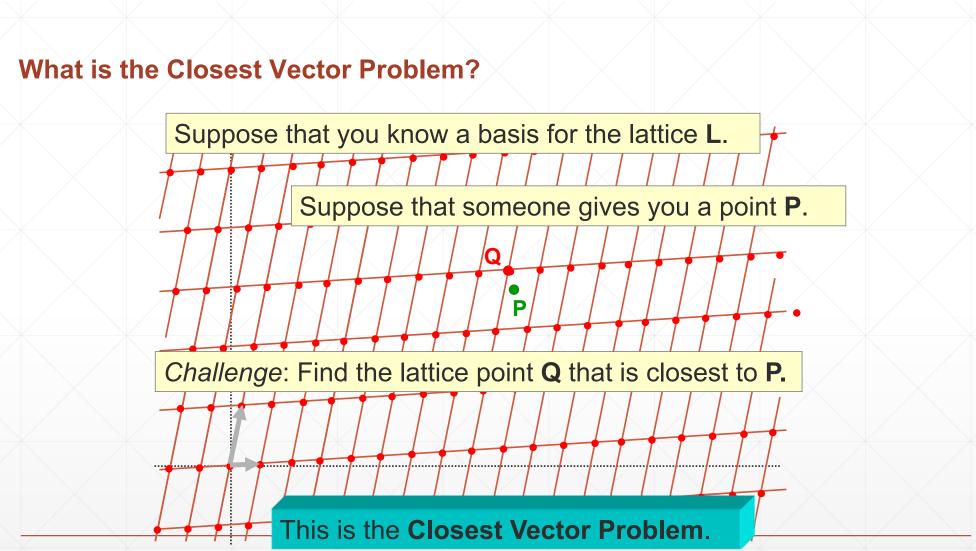
• All these problems, like their classical counterparts, are assumptions. That is, they are believed, so far, to be intractable against poly-bounded adversaries in time and memory.

What is a Lattice?

A lattice is a regular array of points in space.

We can connect the dots to form parallelograms.

The lattice may be described by giving basis vectors that span a parallelogram.



Noise and Hardness

- Noise has been found to convert "easy" problems to more hard instances.
- Let's start with a simple instance of greatest-common-divisor (GCD).
- Let's say that one chooses a secret integer s, then samples several random integers q_i 's
- Define multiples of s, by $p_i = sq_i$, $1 \le i \le l$
- It is easy to compute $s, s = \gcd(q_1, \dots, q_l)$.
- But what if we are given "approximate multiples" of s instead of exact multiples, that is, if one adds small integers r_i to the p_i 's we have:

$$b_i = sq_i + r_i, 1 \le i \le l$$

 How to obtain s? This problem, called as the Approximate Common Divisor Problem is hard for properly chosen parameters.

Learning With Errors¹

Adding Errors

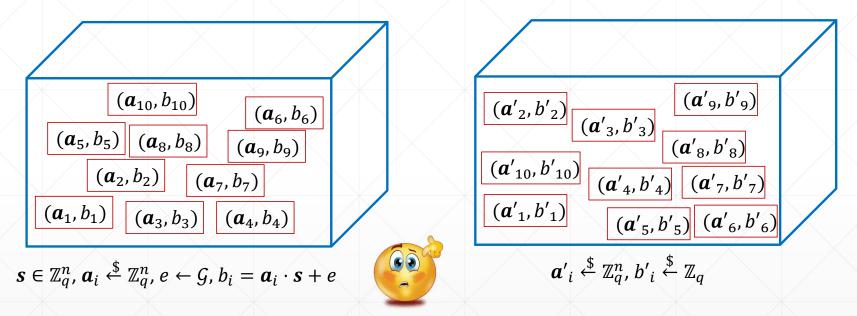
Exact System Approximate System

Removing Errors

An Example

- Suppose that s = (3,7), and $e_1 = e_2 = -1$
- $5s_1 + 3s_2 \approx 35$
- $4s_1 + 2s_2 \approx 27$
- Performing standard row-reduce, we obtain $s = (\frac{11}{2}, \frac{5}{2})$
 - Rounding this works to s = (6,3), which is far off from the actual result.

The Learning With Errors (LWE) Problem



Problem: Distinguish the box with LWE samples from the box with uniform random samples efficiently (in polynomial time).

Find s by observing the inputs and outputs – Search-LWE. While the problem of distinguishing is called Decisional-LWE problem.

PQ resistant hard problems: What to choose?

- The choice of the hard problem depends upon the requirements of the cryptosystem.
 Examples:
 - Hardness level: Whether worst-case or average-case hardness is needed
 - Worst-case: There exists at least one instance of the problem that is difficult to solve.
 Cryptosystems depending on worst-case hardness should use such instances only
 - Average-case: The problem is hard even on random samples of problem instances.
 Cryptosystems depending on average-case hardness can be more lenient on their problem samples.
 - Lattice-based problems have provably worst-case to average-case reductions.

PQ resistant hard problems: What to choose?

- The choice of the hard problem depends upon the requirements of the cryptosystem.
 Examples:
 - Hardness level: Whether worst-case or average-case hardness is needed
 - Optimization opportunities: Whether the structure of the problem has opportunities for optimizations
 - Lattice-based schemes can exploit the structure of algebraic Rings to have reduced storage and faster runtimes through NTT (Number Theoretic Transform).
 - Code-based schemes work on Binary Fields only.
 - Multivariate-based schemes can benefit from optimizations in related literature on improving polynomial evaluations.

PQ resistant hard problems: What to choose?

- The choice of the hard problem depends upon the requirements of the cryptosystem.
 Examples:
 - Hardness level: Whether worst-case or average-case hardness is needed
 - Optimization opportunities: Whether the structure of the problem has opportunities for optimizations
 - Parameters: Size of key, ciphertext etc. in the cryptosystem built upon the problem.

Step 2: Build cryptosystems atop the hard problems

NIST Standardization (and other research)

- Process of standardizing cryptosystems built upon these problems
- Two types:
 - Key Encapsulation Mechanisms: A PQ cryptosystem to establish (usually symmetric) session keys between two parties
 - Digital Signature schemes: PQ cryptosystems to establish authenticity of messages by signing them with the identity of initial message holder.
- Other cryptosystems (outside the scope of standardization)
 - Privacy Enabling Technologies: post-quantum Fully Homomorphic Encryption, Multi-Party Computation, Searchable Symmetric Encryption etc.
 - Encryption schemes: generic encryption schemes, identity based schemes, attributebased encryption schemes
 - Many others....

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BIKE : Code-based KEM

Classic McEliece : Code-based KEM

HQC : Code-based KEM

SIKE : Isogeny based

Kyber : Lattice based (chosen for standardization)

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CRYSTALS-Dilithium : Lattice based (chosen for standardization)

Falcon : Lattice based (chosen for standardization)

SPHINCS+ : Hash based (chosen for standardization)

Step 3: Choose parameter levels

An extremely important choice

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- Tradeoff between security and efficiency
 - Small / Conservative parameters
 - Efficient
 - (Almost always) insecure against poly-bounded adversary in time and memory
 - Large parameters
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 - What about resource-constrained devices?

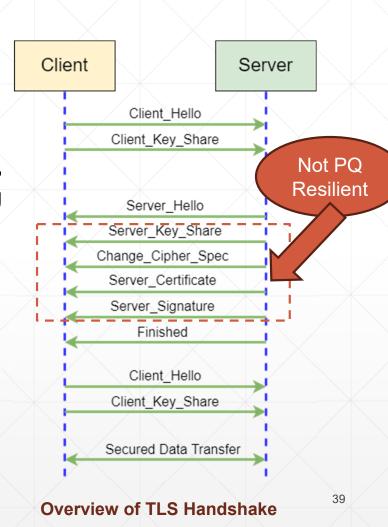
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 - Strategy 2: Carefully compute (wherever possible) the bit security of the cryptosystem and offer multiple levels of security. Users are free to choose
 - Allows users to tradeoff efficiency/security based on available compute power

Step 4: Hardware Support for Post-Quantum Protocols

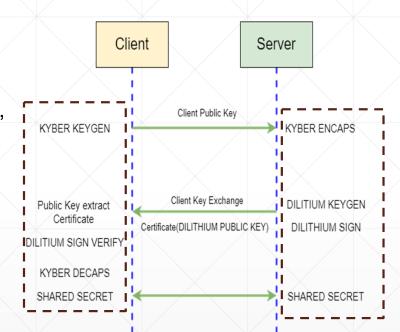
TLS basic Architecture

- TLS is the current standard protocol for establishing secure communication on the Internet.
- TLS consists of three basic steps: Connection establishment,
 TLS handshake and the encryption of application data using symmetric cryptography
- In the figure, we have shown a overview of TLS 1.3.
 - In the first step, the client contacts the server with the Client_Hello message consisting of specific parameter
 - To reduce network traffic, the client also sends its key material (Client_Key_Share) for the key establishment
 - In the second step, the server replies with the Server_Hello that is similar to the Client Hello
 - $\circ\quad$ The server reply is signed by its private key.
 - In the last step, the client also transmits a confirmation for encryption of subsequent messages (Change Cipher Spec) and its readiness to communicate securely (Finished).



PQ-TLS: Making TLS PQ Secure

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- TLS consists of three basic steps: Connection establishment,
 TLS handshake and the encryption of application data using symmetric cryptography
- In the figure, we have introduced our version of TLS 1.3



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Choosing the PQC algorithms: Kyber and Dilithium

- In order to make the public key infrastructure quantum-safe, the pre-quantum schemes in protocols such as TLS are needed to be replaced
- We choose Kyber for the key encapsulation mechanism (KEM) and Dilithium for the digital signature generation which are the most important components of TLS
- Both Dilithium and Kyber has a similar mathematical background and has a similar structure of NTT multiplier and Keccak core.
- KGP-PQC-TLS: An <u>agile</u> Post-Quantum TLS accelerator which encompasses all the security levels of Kyber and Dilithium
 - From an application perspective, a unified design has helped us in implementing post-quantum version of TLS-1.3 protocol.

Siddhartha Chowdhury, A Minimalistic Perspective on Hardware Designs for Modern-day Public-Key Cryptosystems (MS Thesis)

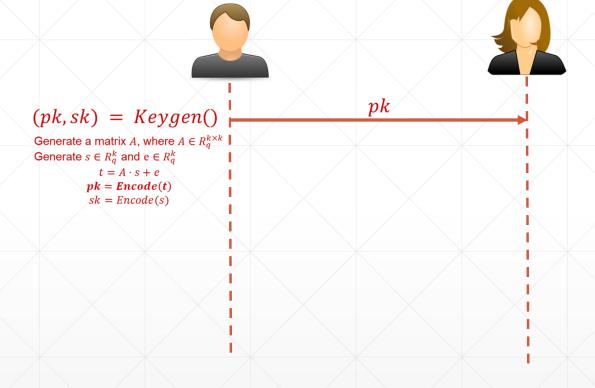
Case Study of an hardware accelerated implementation of a Post Quantum TLS accelerator for resource constrained devices. Developed by **Secured Embedded Architecture Laboratory, IIT Kharagpur.**

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 - For instance, repetitive computations might seem an avenue for optimization, but will affect CCA-2 security (security against chosen ciphertext attacks)

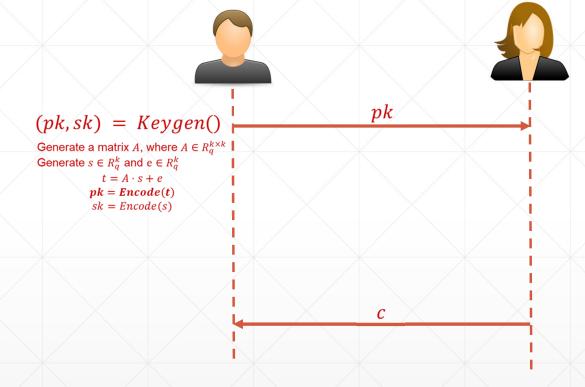
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 - Should not optimize any security critical operations
 - For instance, repetitive computations might seem an avenue for optimization, but will affect CCA-2 security (security against chosen ciphertext attacks)
 - Rule of thumb: Do not optimize the algorithm. Only optimize the implementation
 - Example: Build a hardware core that does matrix-vector multiplications (for the same param set) faster than software





XOF: SHAKE-128; H: SHA3-256; G: SHA3-512; KDF: SHAKE-256.

Kyber in a nutshell



$$(c,K) = Encaps(pk)$$

$$(\widehat{K}, \mathbf{r}) = G(\mathbf{m} \parallel H(pk)), where \mathbf{r} \in R_q^k$$

 $m \in B^{32}, m = H(m)$

 $Enc(r,m,pk): Input \to (r,m,pk)$, $Output \to c$ Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times k}$

$$t = Decode(pk)$$

$$e_1 \in R_q^k \text{ and } e_1 \in R_q$$

$$u = A^T \cdot r + e_1$$

 $v = t^T \cdot r + e_2 + Decompress_q(m, 1)$

$$c_1 = Encode(Compress_q(u))$$

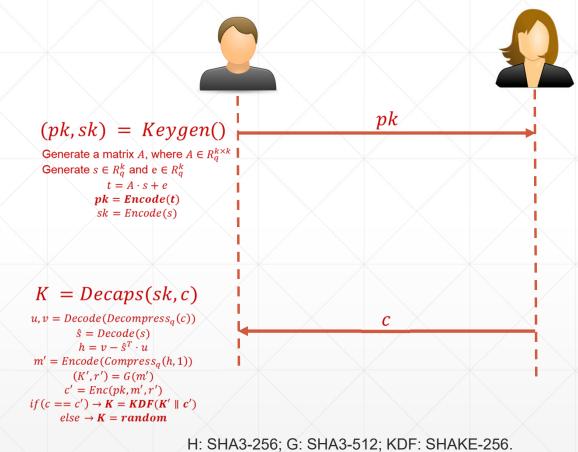
$$c_2 = Encode(Compress_q(v))$$

$$c = (c_1 \parallel c_2)$$

$$K = KDF(\widehat{K} \parallel H(c))$$

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 $Enc(r,m,pk): Input \rightarrow (r,m,pk) , Output \rightarrow c$ Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times k}$

terate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q$ t = Decode(pk) $e_1 \in R_q^k \text{ and } e_1 \in R_q$ $u = A^T \cdot r + e_1$ $v = t^T \cdot r + e_2 + Decompress_q(m, 1)$ $c_1 = Encode(Compress_q(u))$ $c_2 = Encode(Compress_q(v))$ $c = (c_1 \parallel c_2)$

 $K = KDF(\widehat{K} \parallel H(c))$

Parameters	P	a	ra	m	e	te	rs
-------------------	---	---	----	---	---	----	----

					/ 1	i	c q	η_1	η_2	(d_u, d_v)	δ
Kyber512	/		/		25	66	3329	3	2	(10, 4)	2^{-139}
Kyber768										(10, 4)	
Kyber1024					25	66	3329	2	2	(11, 5)	2^{-174}

Dilithium in a nutshell





Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ Generate $s_1 \in R_q^l$ and $s_2 \in R_q^k$

$$t = A \cdot s_1 + s_2$$

 $(t_1, t_0) = Power2Round_q(t)$

 $pk = Encode(t_1)$

 $sk = Encode(t_0, s_1, s_2)$



Dilithium in a nutshell





(pk, sk) = Keygen()

Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ Generate $s_1 \in R_q^l$ and $s_2 \in R_q^k$ $t = A \cdot s_1 + s_2$ $(t_1, t_0) = Power2Round_q(t)$

 $pk = Encode(t_1)$ $sk = Encode(t_0, s_1, s_2)$

 $\sigma = Sign(sk, M)$

Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ Generate $y \in R_q^l$

 $w = A \cdot y$, $w_1 = HighBits_q(w)$ $c = H(w_1)$, $z = y + c \cdot s_1$

 $h = MakeHint_q()$

Return $\sigma(c, z, h)$

 pk, M, σ

Dilithium in a nutshell





$$(pk, sk) = Keygen()$$

Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ Generate $s_1 \in R_q^l$ and $s_2 \in R_q^k$ $t = A \cdot s_1 + s_2$ $(t_1, t_0) = Power2Round_q(t)$ $pk = Encode(t_1)$ $sk = Encode(t_0, s_1, s_2)$

$$\sigma = Sign(sk, M)$$

Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ Generate $y \in R_q^l$ $w = A \cdot y$, $w_1 = HighBits_q(w)$ $c = H(w_1)$, $z = y + c \cdot s_1$ $h = MakeHint_q()$ Return $\sigma(c, z, h)$ pk, M, σ

$Verify(pk, M, \sigma)$ = valid/invalid

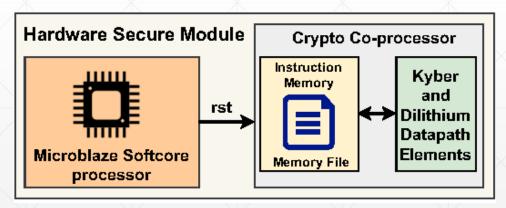
Generate a matrix A, where $A \in R_q^{k \times l}$ $w_1 = UseHint_q(h)$ Verify the correctness of the signature based on the value of z, c and h

Parameters

	NIST Security Level		2	3	5
		Par	ameters		
_	q [modulus]		8380417	8380417	8380417
	d [dropped bits from \mathbf{t}]		13	13	13
	τ [# of ±1's in c]		39	49	60
	challenge entropy $[\log (^{256}) +$	- τ]	192	225	257
	γ_1 [y coefficient range]	•	2^{17}	2^{19}	2^{19}
	γ_2 [low-order rounding range	[e]	(q-1)/88	(q-1)/32	(q-1)/32
	(k,ℓ) [dimensions of A]		(4,4)	(6,5)	(8,7)
	η [secret key range]		2	4	2
	$eta \; [au \cdot \eta]$		78	196	120
	ω [max. # of 1's in the hint	\mathbf{h}	80	55	75
	Repetitions (from Eq. (5))	1 /	4.25	5.1	3.85

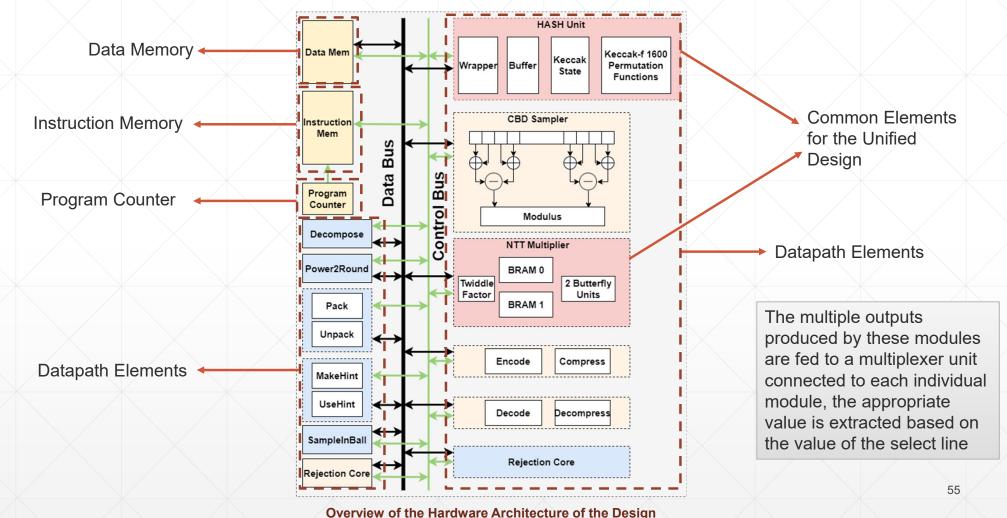
Overall Architecture of our Proposed KGP-PQC-TLS:

- We have chosen a lightweight Xilinx board NEXYS 4 DDR which houses an Artix-7 FPGA and a soft-core microprocessor
- The Microblaze processor triggers the respective key generation, key encapsulation/decapsulation, signature generation and verification operations whenever required



Overall Architecture of our Proposed Design

Hardware Acceleration: A Case Study of Post Quantum TLS



Number Theoretic Transforms (NTT)- The Heart of Lattice based PQC Designs

$$\frac{1 + 2x + 3x^{2} + 4x^{3}}{5 + 6x + 7x^{2} + 8x^{3}} \times \frac{5 + 6x + 7x^{2} + 8x^{3}}{8x^{3} + 16x^{4} + 24x^{5} + 32x^{6}} \times \frac{7x^{2} + 14x^{3} + 21x^{4} + 28x^{5}}{6x + 12x^{2} + 18x^{3} + 24x^{4}} \times \frac{5 + 10x + 15x^{2} + 20x^{3}}{5 + 16x + 34x^{2} + 60x^{3} + 61x^{4} + 52x^{5} + 32x^{6}} + \frac{10x + 15x^{2} + 20x^{3}}{5 + 16x + 34x^{2} + 60x^{3} + 61x^{4} + 52x^{5} + 32x^{6}}$$

$$32x^{2} + 52x + 61$$

$$x^{4} + 1 \overline{\smash{\big)}\ 32x^{6} + 52x^{5} + 61x^{4} + 60x^{3} + 34x^{2} + 16x + 5}$$

$$\underline{32x^{6} + 0x^{5} + 0x^{4} + 0x^{3} + 32x^{2}}$$

$$\underline{52x^{5} + 61x^{4} + 60x^{3} + 2x^{2} + 16x + 5}$$

$$\underline{52x^{5} + 0x^{4} + 0x^{3} + 0x^{2} + 52x}$$

$$\underline{61x^{4} + 60x^{3} + 2x^{2} - 36x + 5}$$

$$\underline{61x^{4} + 0x^{3} + 0x^{2} + 0x + 61}$$

$$\underline{60x^{3} + 2x^{2} - 36x - 56}$$

Polynomial multiplication can be seen as a convolution of two vectors.

An alternate way of expressing the polynomials (rather than coefficients) is to evaluate the function (in this case 4 points).

Then, we can point to point multiply the results! - O(n) steps

The transformation should be however efficient – O(nlogn) steps!

NTT of Kyber

- Kyber is based on NTT-friendly prime q = 3329
- The prime is of the form $q-1=2^8\cdot 13$ and base field $\mathbb{Z}_q/(X^n+1)$, where n=256 has only 256-th root of unity but not 512-th root of unity
- Let ζ be the first 256-th primitive root of unity

$$X^{256} + 1 \longrightarrow (X^2 - \zeta^{2br(0)+1})(X^2 - \zeta^{2br(1)+1})(X^2 - \zeta^{2br(2)+1}) \dots (X^2 - \zeta^{2br(127)+1})$$
, $br \rightarrow bit reversal$

• The NTT of $f \in R_q$ is given as: $(f \mod X^2 - \zeta^{2br(0)+1}, ..., f \mod X^2 - \zeta^{2br(127)+1})$

$$\hat{f}_{2i} = f_0 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 0} + f_2 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 1} + f_4 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 2} + \dots + f_{254} \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 127}$$

$$\hat{f}_{2i+1} = f_1 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 0} + f_3 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 1} + f_5 \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 2} + \dots + f_{255} \zeta^{(2br(i)+1)\cdot 127}$$

$$NTT(f) = \hat{f} = (\hat{f}_0 + \hat{f}_1 X, \hat{f}_2 + \hat{f}_3 X, \dots, \hat{f}_{254} + \hat{f}_{255} X)$$

NTT of Dilithium

- Dilithium is based on NTT-friendly prime q=8380417
- The prime is of the form $q-1=2^{13}\cdot 1023$ and base field $\mathbb{Z}_q/(X^n+1)$, where n=256 has both 256-th and 512-th root of unity
- Let r be the first 512-th primitive root of unity

$$X^{256} + 1 \longrightarrow (X - r)(X + r)(X - r^{129})(X + r^{129}) \dots (X - r^{127})(X + r^{127})(X - r^{255})(X + r^{255})$$

• The NTT of $a \in R_q$ is given as: $(a \mod X - r, a \mod X + r, ..., a \mod X - r^{255}, a \mod X + r^{255})$

$$NTT(a) = \hat{a} = (a(r_0), a(-r_0), ..., a(r_{127}), a(-r_{127})), \text{ where } r_i = t^{brv(128+i)}, brv \rightarrow \text{bit reversal}$$

Architecture of Unified NTT

• In case of Kyber the irreducible polynomial $X^{256} + 1$ is split into 128 degree 2 polynomials

$$X^{256} + 1 \longrightarrow (X^2 - \zeta^{2br(0)+1})(X^2 - \zeta^{2br(1)+1})(X^2 - \zeta^{2br(2)+1}) \dots (X^2 - \zeta^{2br(127)+1})$$
, $br \rightarrow bit reversal$

• In case of Dilithium the irreducible polynomial $X^{256} + 1$ is split into 256 degree 1 polynomials

$$X^{256} + 1 \longrightarrow (X - r)(X + r)(X - r^{129})(X + r^{129}) \dots (X - r^{127})(X + r^{127})(X - r^{255})(X + r^{255})$$

Consequently, in case of Kyber the NTT of a polynomial has 128 degree 1 polynomials

$$NTT(f) = \hat{f} = (\hat{f}_0 + \hat{f}_1 X, \hat{f}_2 + \hat{f}_3 X, ..., \hat{f}_{254} + \hat{f}_{255} X)$$

Consequently, in case of Dilithium the NTT of a polynomial has 256 degree 0 polynomials

$$NTT(a) = \hat{a} = (a(r_0), a(-r_0), ..., a(r_{127}), a(-r_{127})), \text{ where } r_i = t^{brv(128+i)}, brv \rightarrow \text{bit reversal}$$

So, in order to combine them we have stopped splitting the Dilithium polynomial after obtaining 128 degree 2 polynomials.

Architecture of Unified NTT

- Using the NTT and Inverse NTT, we can compute the product $f \cdot g$ of two elements $f, g \in R_q$
- The formulation for the calculation is $NTT^{-1}(NTT(f) \odot NTT(g)) = \hat{f} \odot \hat{g} = \hat{h}$
- So, the basecase multiplication consist of 128 products of degree 1 polynomials,
- While executing pointwise multiplication we followed the Karatsuba multiplication technique:

$$h_{2i} + h_{2i+1}X = (f_{2i} + f_{2i_1}X) \cdot (g_{2i} + g_{2i+1}X) \mod (X^2 - \zeta^{2br(i)+1})$$

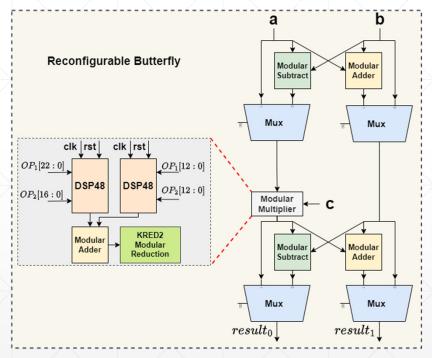
$$h_{2i} = f_{2i} g_{2i} + f_{2i+1} g_{2i+1} \cdot \zeta^{2br(i)+1}$$

$$h_{2i+1} = (f_{2i} + f_{2i+1})(g_{2i} + g_{2i+1}) - (f_{2i} g_{2i} + f_{2i+1} g_{2i+1})$$

• So effectively the complexity of the polynomial multiplication is reduced from $O(n^2)$ to $O(n \log n)$

NTT Multiplier

We have implemented both the Cooley-Tukey (for forward NTT) and the Gentleman-Sande (for Inverse NTT) algorithms to implement the NTT multiplier.



Butterfly Architecture of our NTT Core

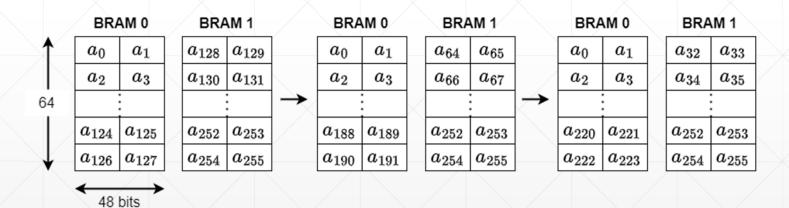
- Figure shows the basic structure of a butterfly unit which is capable of processing two coefficients at a time.
- The NTT multiplier houses 2 such butterfly computation units that is capable of processing four polynomial coefficients after each iteration
- The butterfly unit in the figure can operate in 3 separate modes: Forward NTT, Inverse NTT, Point-wise multiplication
- Depending on the operating mode, the input c can be switched between twiddle factors or a polynomial coefficient.

Forward NTT	Inverse NTT
$t = \zeta.a$	a = a + b
a = a - t	b = a - b
b = b + t	$b = \zeta.b$

 ζ is the twiddle factor

NTT Multiplier

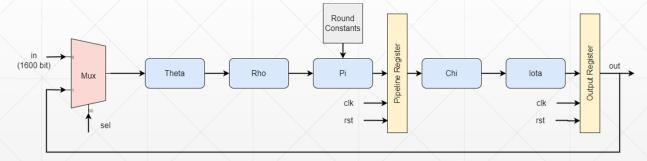
- The NTT multiplier block has two separate BRAM units capable of holding two coefficients in a single memory cell separated by an index of s, where $s \in \{128,64,32,16,8,4,2\}$
- The figure below shows an example of the content of the BRAM units



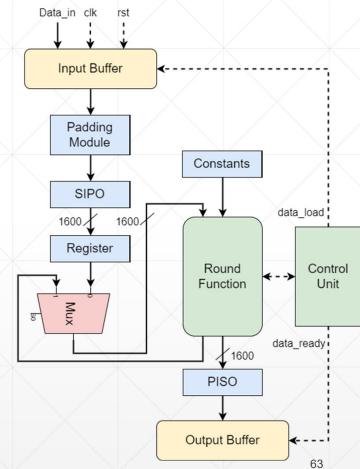
NTT multiplier scheduling in the NTT RAM

KECCAK Module for Kyber and Dilithium

- Kyber requires four modes of the Keccak core namely SHA3-256, SHA3-512, SHAKE-128, and SHAKE-256.
 - Whereas, Dilithium requires two modes SHAKE-128 and SHAKE-256.
- These modes are implemented using the Keccak sponge structure internally equipped with separate wrappers and individual buffers that are multiplexed based on the microcoded control signals.

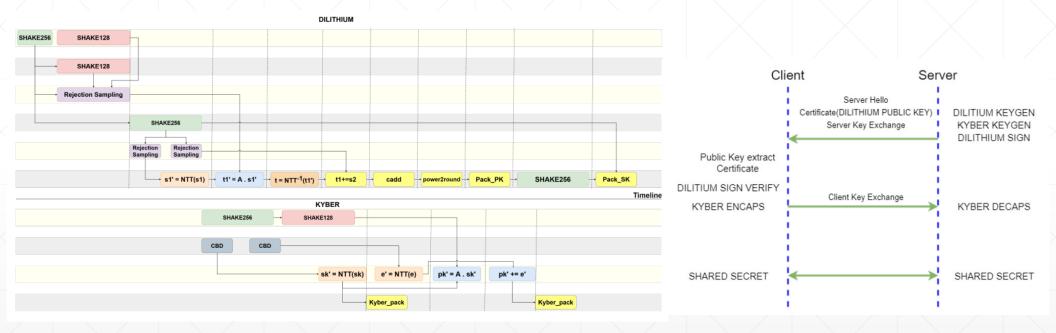


Proposed architecture of transformation round



Proposed architecture of the KECCAK hash function

Parallel Scheduling of the Key generation of Kyber and Dilithium



Implementation Details

The table below shows the resource utilization of various components of Kyber and Dilithium when implemented on the FPGA

Algorithm	Components	LUTs	DSPs	BRAMs
	Decompose	504	-	-
,	MakeHint	80	-	-
	UseHint	708	-	-
-	Powe2Round	75	-	-
,	Pack	658	-	-
Dilithium	Unpack	325	-	-
	Encode	354	-	-
	Decode	160	-	-
	SampleInBall	485	-	-
	Verify	16	-	_
	Rejection Core	718	-	-
	Compress/Decompress	258	-	-
	Encode	581	-	-
	Decode	268	-	-
Kyber	COPY	30	-	-
	CMOV	35	-	-
	Rejection Core	185	-	-
	Verification Core	98	-	-
	KECCAK	10879	-	-
Common	Data Memory	-	-	19
Common	NTT Multiplier	2899	4	1
	Controller	2618	-	5
	Total	22125	4	25

Implementation Details

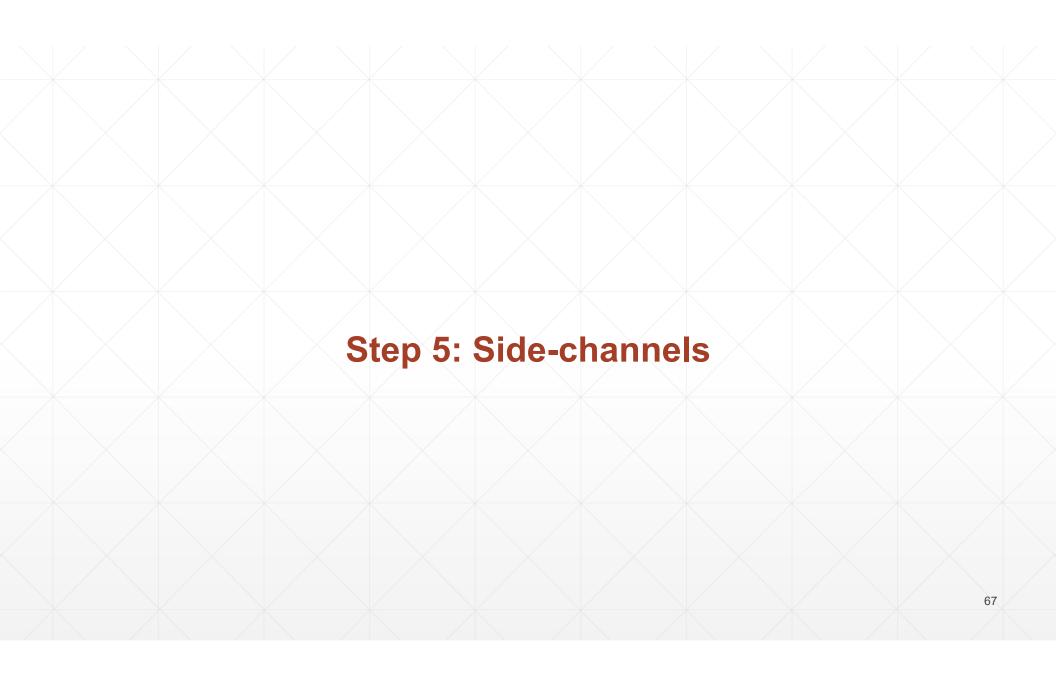
 The table below shows the comparison of our proposed design with the state of the art Dilithium and Kyber hardware designs

Works	Almonithm	LUTA	Sign	Verify μs	Encaps μs	Decaps	AT Draduct
	Algorithm	LUTs	μs			μs	AT Product
	Dilithium II+ Kyber- 512	37935	178	121	10	20	12.4
[8]+[9]	Dilithium III+ Kyber- 768	42683	310	221	15	25	24.3
	Dilithium V+ Kyber- 1024	58000	503	377	20	30	53.9
Our Design	Dilithium II+ Kyber- 512	22125	200	113	21.27	26.32	7.9
	Dilithium III+ Kyber-768	22125	350	181	27.11	31.85	13.0
	Dilithium V+ Kyber- 1024	22125	500	270	33.11	39.89	18.6

Resource utilization and timing details of our proposed design

Ref.8: Georg Land et al. "A hard crystal - implementing dilithium on reconfigurable hardware." IACR eprint, 2021.

Ref.9: Mojtaba Bisheh-Niasar et al. "High-speed NTT-based polynomial multiplication accelerator for crystals-kyber post-quantum cryptography." IACR eprint, 2021.



Side-channels: Importance for PQC standardization

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- NIST also considers evaluation of PQ cryptosystems against such attack vectors.
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- The hard problems do not factor in physical attacks.
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- NIST also considers evaluation of PQ cryptosystems against such attack vectors.
 - Quote NIST: "NIST seeks any distinguishing information in the realm of side-channel analyses that especially indicate a reason for NIST to prefer one of the finalists over the others."
- Two kinds of adversaries:
 - Passive adversary: Passively observes leakage and tries to reconstruct secret cryptographic material. Example: power side-channel
 - Active adversary : Actively injects faults in computation, and uses differential computation paths to reconstruct secret cryptographic material.

Side-channels: Case study for PQ Lattice KEMs

- Presenting a case-study on PQ Lattice KEMs. Similar issues plague other cryptosystems too.
- Rely on distinguishable effective/ineffective faults to draw inferences

```
Fault here!

1: Input: (sk, c)

2: m = LPR.PKE.Dec(sk, c)
3: (K'_H, r') = \mathcal{G}(pkh, m)
4: c_* = LPR.PKE.Enc(pk, m, r')
5: if c_* = c then
6: K = \mathcal{KDF}(K'_H, \mathcal{H}(c))
7: else

Effective fault
8: K = \mathcal{KDF}(z, \mathcal{H}(c)) // Use randomness z to output an incorrect key
9: return (c, K)
```

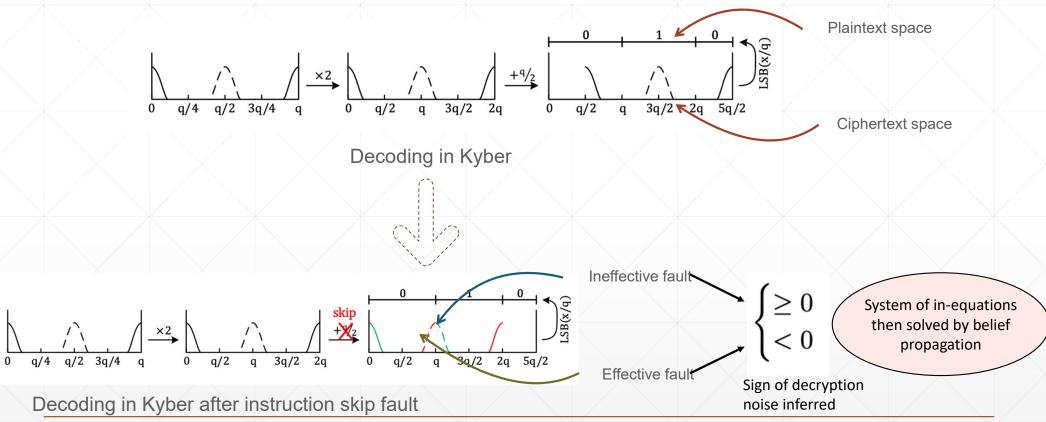
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Side-channels: Case study for PQ Lattice KEMs

> Attack on Kyber



Side-channels: Case study for PQ Lattice KEMs

Countermeasures

Algorithm 3 LPR. KEM. Decaps.

```
1: Input: (sk, c)

2: m = LPR.PKE.Dec(sk, c, seed)

3: (K'_H, r') = \mathcal{G}(pkh, m)

4: c_* = LPR.PKE.Enc(pk, m, r')

5: if c_* = c then

6: K = \mathcal{KDF}(K'_H, \mathcal{H}(c))

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9: return (c, K)
```

Shuffle the order of coefficients being processed

Algorithm 3 LPR.KEM.Decaps.

```
1: Input: (sk, c)

2: for i = 1 to k do //k repetitions

3: m_i = LPR.PKE.Dec(sk, c)

4: if Check(m_1, m_2, ..., m_k) = 0 then

5: abort // If a fault is detected

6: (K'_H, r') = \mathcal{G}(pkh, m_1)

7: c_* = LPR.PKE.Enc(pk, m_1, r')

8: if c_* = c then

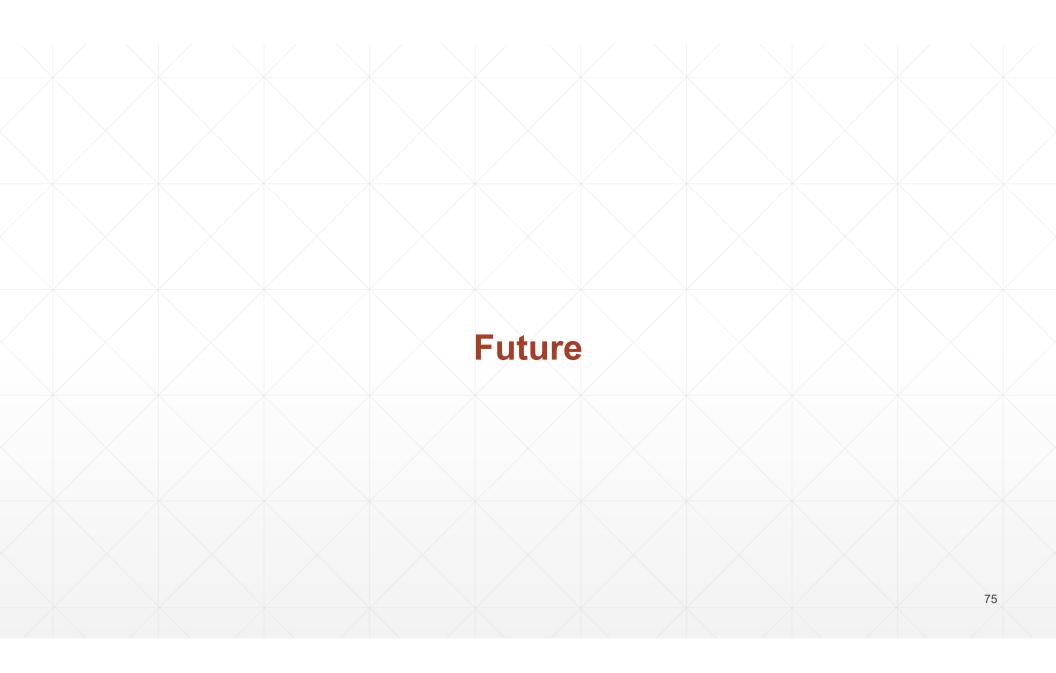
9: K = \mathcal{KDF}(K'_H, \mathcal{H}(c))

10: else

11: K = \mathcal{KDF}(z, \mathcal{H}(c)) // Use randomness z to output an incorrect key

12: return (c, K)
```

Repeat the computation multiple times (k repetitions protect against k-1 faults



Expect worldwide organizations to adapt NIST standardized cryptosystems

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- "Aren't classical cryptosystems secure until Quantum Computers become practical?"
 - No!
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 - All cryptosystems are open-source by design, and such implementations are well-audited.
 - At the least, use standard PQ implementation with recommended parameter settings.
 - Any edits to standar PQ implementation requires reproving security in the relevant hardproblem assumption through standard cryptographic reduction techniques.

Thank You

Binomial Sampler

- A binomial sampler is used as substitution for the Gaussian sampler
- The binomial distribution that is parametrized by $k = \sigma^2$ is sufficiently close to a discrete Gaussian distribution with standard deviation σ and does not significantly decrease the security level.
- Algorithm:
 - Uniformly sampling two k-bit vectors and computing their respective Hamming weights.
 - Subtracting the Hamming weights of both bit vectors.
- As k scales quadratically with σ this approach is suited for lattice-based encryption or key exchange schemes. Signature schemes usually require larger standard deviations.
- This is implemented in NewHope and Kyber

Code-based:

Problem ((**Decisional**) **Syndrome Decoding problem**) *Given an* $(n-k) \times n$ *parity-check matrix H for C, a vector* $y \in \mathbb{F}_2^{n-k}$, *and a target* $t \in \mathbb{N}$, *determine whether there exists* $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ *that satisfies* $Hx^T = y$ *and* $|x| \le t$.

Problem description: given a parity matrix **H** and a binary target **y**, find **x**

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- Problem description: given a parity matrix H and a binary target y, find "small" preimage x
- Why is it hard: Because the x to be recovered is bounded by Hamming weight t. Small t means we need to find a small x, and that is provably difficult for "correct parameterization" of the problem (i.e. for large enough values of n and k).

Code-based:

Problem ((**Decisional**) Codeword Finding problem) Given an $(n - k) \times n$ parity-check matrix H for C and a target $w \in \mathbb{N}$, determine whether there exists $x \in \mathbb{F}_2^n$ that satisfies $Hx^T = 0$ and |x| = w.

Problem description: given a parity matrix H and an integer target w (w > 0), find "small" x in the kernel of H

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Multivariate-based:

Problem ((Decisional) Multivariate Quadratic (\mathcal{MQ}) polynomial problem) Given a finite field \mathbb{F} and a system of m quadratic polynomials of n variables x_i :

$$f_k(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n} a_{ij}^{(k)} x_i x_j + \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} b_i^{(k)} x_i + c^{(k)} = 0,$$

for k from 1 to m, where $a_{ij}^{(k)}, b_i^{(k)}, c^{(k)}$ are all in \mathbb{F} , determine if there exists a solution in \mathbb{F}^n .

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- Problem description: Given m quadratic polynomials with n variables each, find a solution "common" to the kernel of each polynomial
- Why is it hard: Finding an element in the kernel of a multivariate polynomial amounts to finding its root. The "hardness" here comes from the requirement of finding a "common" root to all polynomials (or one solution to all polynomials).

Multivariate-based:

Problem ((**Decisional**) **MinRank problem**) Given a finite field \mathbb{F} , k matrices M_i of size $m \times n$ with entries in \mathbb{F} , and a rank bound r, determine if there exist values $c_i \in \mathbb{F}$ to satisfy the following equation:

$$rank\left(\sum_{i=1}^k c_i M_i\right) \leq r.$$

• **Problem description**: Given **k** matrices in some field, find a linear combination of these matrices such that the rank of the resultant matrix is bounded by **r**

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- Problem description: Given k matrices in some field, find a linear combination of these
 matrices such that the rank of the resultant matrix is bounded by r
- Why is it hard: Finding a linear combination of matrices M is straightforward, however, the "hardness" comes from the requirement to bound the final result by small r

Lattice-based:

Problem (The Short Integer Solution ($SIS_{n,m,q,\beta}$) problem) Let n,m,q be positive integers, and let β be a positive real number. Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^{n \times m}$, chosen uniformly at random, find a nonzero integer vector $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ of Euclidean norm $||\mathbf{z}|| \leq \beta$ such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$.

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- Problem description: Given a matrix A, find a "short" z in the kernel of A
- Why is it hard: Finding an point in the kernel of lattice defined by A is straigtforward through methods like Gaussian Elimination. The "hardness" comes from the requirement of bounding the norm of z (i.e. find a "short" element in the kernel of A).

Lattice-based:

Problem (The Search – NTRU_{R,q,D,\gamma} problem) Let q be a positive integer, \gamma be a positive real number, and R be a ring of the form $R = \mathbb{Z}_q[x]/\Phi$ (where Φ is a monic polynomial). Given an element $h \in R$ drawn from some distribution D, such that there exists nonzero $(f,g) \in R^2$ that satisfy $h \cdot f = g \mod q$ and have small Euclidean norms $||f||, ||g|| \le \sqrt{q}/\gamma$, find such a pair (f,g).

Problem description: Given an element \mathbf{h} from the polynomial ring \mathbf{R} , find two "short" polynomials \mathbf{f} and \mathbf{g} such that $\mathbf{h} \cdot \mathbf{f} = \mathbf{g} \mod \mathbf{q}$ with overwhelming probability.

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- Why is it hard: The "hardness" is derived from two requirements:
 - Both f and g are norm-bounded
 - Both f and g are in R.
 - Why the second requirement: Otherwise, the adversary samples a "small" f in R, then simply computes (h.f) mod q. If this result need not be in R, then it is easy to solve

Lattice-based:

Problem (The Search-LWE_{n,m,q,B,\chi} problem) Let $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$ be chosen from some distribution \mathcal{B} . Given m samples $(\mathbf{a}_1,b_1),\ldots,(\mathbf{a}_m,b_m)\in\mathbb{Z}_q^n\times\mathbb{Z}_q$ drawn independently at random from the distribution $A_{\mathbf{s},\chi}$, find \mathbf{s} .

Problem description: Given a public matrix \mathbf{A} and a secret \mathbf{s} , invert the functional evaluation of $(\mathbf{A}.\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{e})$ where \mathbf{e} is some error drawn from a "narrow" distribution (like Gaussian).

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- Why is it hard: Given b = (A.s + e), it is difficult to invert for the correct choice of the distribution of error e

NTT Multiplier

Algorithm for NTT

```
Require: p, N, q; twiddle\_factor\_array[N]
Ensure: \hat{p}
1: twiddle\_count = 1
2: for s = 2^{N-1} to 1 by s/2 do
3: for start = 0 to N-1 by j+s do
4: zeta = twiddle\_factor\_array[+ + twiddle\_count]
5: for j = start to start + s do
6: t = zeta \cdot p[j + s] \mod q
7: p[j + s] = p[j] - t \mod q
8: p[j] = p[j] + t \mod q
9: end for
10: end for
11: end for
```

Algorithm for Inverse-NTT

```
Require: \hat{p}, N, q; twiddle_factor_array[N]
Ensure: p
 1: twiddle\_count = N
 2: for s = 1 to N - 1 by s \cdot 2 do
      for start = 0 to N - 1 by j+s do
        zeta = twiddle\_factor\_array[--twiddle\_count]
 4:
        for j = start to start + s do
 5:
          t = p[j]
 6:
          p[j] = (t + p[j + s])/2 \bmod q
          p[j+s] = (t-p[j+s])/2 \bmod q
          p[j+s] = zeta \cdot p[j+s] \mod q
        end for
10:
      end for
11:
12: end for
```

Compress/Decompress unit of Kyber

- The compress operation requires division by q and rounding.
 - $Compress(x) = \left\lceil \left(\frac{2^d}{q}\right) \cdot x \right\rceil \pmod{2^d}$
- The decompress unit performs division by power-of-two and rounding operation
 - $Decompress(x) = \left[\left(\frac{q}{2^d}\right) \cdot x\right]$
- The value of *d* varies as follows: {1, 4, 5, 10, 11}

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Compress Algorithm used for Kyber

```
if d == 1: t = (10079 \cdot x); y = (t \gg 24) + (t[23] \gg 23)

if d == 4: t = (315 \cdot x); y = (t \gg 16) + (t[15] \gg 15)

if d == 5: t = (630 \cdot x); y = (t \gg 16) + (t[15] \gg 15)

if d == 10: t = (5160669 \cdot x); y = (t \gg 24) + (t[23] \gg 23)

if d == 11: t = (10321339 \cdot x); y = (t \gg 24) + (t[23] \gg 23)

return y \pmod{2^d}
```