## ciphart

# memory-harder key derivation with easier measurable security

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**synopsis**—  $argon2^2$  is mostly nice, as it is a simple memory-hard key derivation function relative to scrypt, which makes understanding what it is doing easier. but i argue that argon2 is still not nice enough, as it can be simpler and harder.

currently, if you want to know what argon2 is giving for your security-wise, you need to survey the industry of application-specific integrated-circuits (asics) in order to obtain a cost-money map, as done in the scrypt paper. the housekeeping of this approach is too expensive as the industry is constantly changing, plus it remains a rough estimate with inadequate theoretical guarantees.

henceforth, i propose ciphart — a memory-harder key derivation function, with a security contribution that is measured in the unit of shannon's entropy. i.e. ciphart can say that it is injecting x many shannon's entropy bits to your password.

• the simpler security interpretation is thanks to the perfect lie theorem that i discovered, which allows ciphart to claim that it is injecting shannon's entropy bits into input passwords, for as long as the password remains a secret.

the password remaining a secret for the adversary is a fundamental assumption of password-based security, hence the theorem applies against the vestiary, which is the side that it matters.

• the memory-harder ness allows to require ridiculously large amounts of memory, way beyond our random-access memory. this is done by utilising hard-disks, and can be done conveniently, in part, thanks to my discovery of the fact that caching derived keys into disks, is practical for almost every use cases.

it's optional, but i personally use it as it significantly enhances my security, and an adversary won't compromise my security, even if he steals my hard-disk.

libciphart<sup>3</sup> is a library that implements *ciphart* very closely to this paper, without much fluff. this should make integrating *ciphart* into other systems more convenient.

ciphart<sup>4</sup> is an application for encrypting and decrypting files that makes use of libciphart. this application is intended for use by end-users or scripts, henceforth it has some fluff to treat mankind with dignity.

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## 1 background

we've got password p with H(p) many shannon's entropy bits worth of information in it. so what does this mean?

fundamentally, it means that, on average, we'd need to ask H(p) many perfect binary questions<sup>5</sup> in order to fully resolve all ambiguities about p; i.e. to fully get every bit of p.

but people use it to do less orthodox things, such as quantifying the amount of security p has against, say, brute-forcing attacks.

say that we've got a 8V bit key  $k \leftarrow \mathtt{hash}(p||s,8V)$ , derived from password p, where s is a salt. say that the attacker has s and k but wants to figure out p. in this case, he will need to brute-force the password space in order to find p that gives k. his cost is:

$$2^{H(p)} \left( \texttt{cost(hash)} + \texttt{cost}(\text{if } \hat{k} = k) \right) \tag{1}$$

**definition 1.** the security of a system is the cost of the cheapest method that can break it.

one way to estimate **cost** is to survey the asics industry. by surveying the asics industry to get an idea how much money it costs to get a given key, or password, space brute-forced within a target time frame<sup>6</sup>. this has an expensive housekeeping and is usually not possible to get any guarantees as we don't know about state-of-art manufacturing secrets that adversaries may have.

another way is to ignore anything that has no cryptographic guarantee. so, in (1), cryptography guarantees<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>https://github.com/P-H-C/phc-winner-argon2

 $<sup>^3 {\</sup>it https://github.com/Al-Caveman/libciphart}$ 

<sup>4</sup>https://github.com/Al-Caveman/ciphart

 $<sup>^5\</sup>mathrm{one}$  which, if answered, and on average, gets the search space reduced in half.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>see the *scrypt* paper for an example.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>statistically by confidence earned through peer review and attempts to break encryption algorithms.

that  $2^{H(p)}$  many hash calls are performed and that many equality tests. the hash call needs to be done once, so let's give it a unit of time 1. the equality test also needs to be called once, but since since it's so cheap it's easier to just assume that its cost is free. this way (1) becomes just:

$$2^{H(p)}(1+0) = 2^{H(p)} \tag{2}$$

further, for convenience, it seems that people report it in the  $\log_2$  scale. i.e.  $\log_2 2^{H(p)} = H(p)$ . i think this is why people use password entropy as a measure of its security. not because it is the quantity of security, but rather because its the quantity of *simplified* security.

## 2 caveman's entropy

#### 2.1 recursive hash

if the hash function is replaced by an N-deep recursion over hash, like:

$$\begin{aligned} & \texttt{rhash}(p \| s, 8V, N) \\ &= \texttt{hash}(\texttt{hash}(\dots \texttt{hash}(p \| s, 8V), \dots, 8V), 8V) \end{aligned}$$

then, if hash is not broken, (1) becomes:

$$2^{H(p)} \left( N \operatorname{cost}(\operatorname{hash}) + \operatorname{cost}(\operatorname{if} \, \hat{k} = k) \right) \tag{3}$$

and (2) becomes:

$$2^{H(p)}(N+0) = N2^{H(p)}$$

$$= 2^{H(p) + \log_2 N}$$
(4)

at this point, thanks to cryptographic guarantees concerning properties of hashing functions, there is absolutely no security distinction between a password with shannon's  $H(p) + \log_2 N$  entropy bits, and a password with just H(p) entropy bits that made use of the N-deep recursive calls of hash.

shannon's entropy of p remains H(p), but thanks to the recursive calls of hash, that password will be as expensive as another password  $\hat{p}$ , such that  $H(\hat{p}) = H(p) + \log_2 N$ .

i think it will be simpler if we introduce the function-dependent caveman's entropy C as a measure. it goes like this:

$$C(p, hash(...)) = H(p)$$
 (5)

$$C(\hat{p}, \text{hash}(\ldots)) = H(p) + \log_2 N$$
 (6)

$$C(p, \mathtt{rhash}(\dots, N)) = H(p) + \log_2 N$$

$$= H(\hat{p})$$
(7)

security-wise, there is no distinction between the more complex password  $\hat{p}$ , and the simpler password p that used  $\mathtt{rhash}(\ldots,N)$ . so i really think we need to measure password security in C instead of H.

#### 2.2 memory-hard hash

let mhash be like rhash, except that it also requires M many memory bytes such that, as available memory is linearly reduced from M, penalty in cpu time grows exponentially. let M be requested memory,  $\hat{M}$  be available memory, and  $e(M-\hat{M})$  be the exponential penalty value for reduction in memory, where e(0)=1.

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{cost} \Big( \operatorname{mhash}(p\|s,N,M) \Big) \\ & = \operatorname{cost} \Big( \operatorname{rhash}(p\|s,N) \Big)^{e(\hat{M}-M)} \end{split} \tag{8}$$

if hash in (1) is replaced by the M-bytes memory-hardened N-deep recursion hash function mhash, then (1) becomes:

$$2^{H(p)} \left( N^{e(M-\hat{M})} \operatorname{cost}(\operatorname{hash}) + \operatorname{cost}(\operatorname{if} \, \hat{k} = k) \right) \quad \ (9)$$

(2) becomes:

$$2^{H(p)}(N^{e(M-\hat{M})} + 0) = N^{e(M-\hat{M})}2^{H(p)}$$

$$= 2^{H(p) + \log_2 N^{e(M-\hat{M})}}$$

$$= 2^{H(p) + e(M-\hat{M})\log_2 N}$$
(10)

and caveman's entropy becomes:

$$C\Big(p,\mathtt{mhash}(\ldots,N,M)\Big) = H(p) + e(M-\hat{M})\log_2 N \ (11)$$

### 3 the perfect lie theorem

let p be a password with H(p) shannon's entropy bits. let  $\hat{p}$  be a more complex password with  $H(p) + e(M - \hat{M}) \log_2 N$  shannon's entropy bits, where M,  $\hat{M}$  and N are all positive numbers.

then cave man's entropy says that the following keys are information theoretically in distinguishable for as long as only p and  $\hat{p}$  remain unknown (everything else is known, such as the distribution from which p and  $\hat{p}$  was sampled), and for as long as <code>hash</code> is not broken:

- $k \leftarrow \mathtt{mhash}(p||s,N,M)$
- $\hat{k} \leftarrow \text{hash}(\hat{p}||s)$

in other words:

$$C\Big(p, \mathtt{mhash}(\dots, N, M)\Big) = H(\hat{p})$$
 (12)

since the assumption that passwords are kept away from the adversary is fundamental in a symmetric encryption context, i think it makes since that we measure our security with memory-hard key derivation functions using the caveman's entropy C instead of shannon's entropy H.

from a security point of view, it will feel absolutely identical to as if the password got injected with extra shannon's entropy bits. no one can tell the difference for as long as

the fundamental assumption of hiding passwords is honoured, as well as the hashing function hash is not broken.

in other words, we can say, if password p is unknown, and hash is not broken, then we have injected into p extra shannon's entropy bits. this lie will be only discovered after p is revealed.

if you think that it is impossible for this *lie* to be *truth* under the secrecy of p, then i've done an even better job: proving that cryptographically secure hashing functions do not exist. likewise, same can be trivially extended to: cryptographically symmetric ciphers do not exist.

so you have to pick only one of these options:

- 1. either accept that the lie is truth. i.e. accept that we've injected shannon's entropy bits into p, for as long as only p is not revealed.
- or, accept that cryptographically-secure hashing and symmetric-encryption functions functions do not exist.

**theorem 1** (the perfect lie<sup>8</sup>). when p is secret and hash is not broken, then shannon's entropy H of the derived key equals caveman's entropy C.

the reason this lie is appealing is because it simplifies our quantification of the amount of security that we have gained by using a given key derivation function, such as rhash or mhash.

without treating this lie as truth, our only hope would be surveying the asics industry. but with this lie, we have one more approach to get a feel of the gained security quantity by just accepting caveman's entropy C as shannon's entropy H, and move on as if the lie is truth, and no one can notice it.

we can also look at it from the perspective of *occam's* razor. i.e. if two things are not distinguishable from one another, then assuming that they are just the same thing is simpler than assuming otherwise.

to be more specific about occam's razor: (1) each assumption bit has a positive probability of error by definition, (2) since assuming that indistinguishable things are different than one another is more complex (i.e. more assumption bits) than assuming not, and (3) since there is no observable difference between the two things, therefore it necessarily follows that our model's total error will be reduced if we accept that the indistinguishable things are identical (i.e. which is what theorem 1 says).

### 4 memory-harder ness

let's say that D is total number of bytes for hard-disk-based memory hardness. this process goes like this:

1. starts by recursively encrypting D many bytes of some predefined sequence, such as zeros or Oxdbdb..., using a key derived from an cheaply-hashed password p.

- by the end of this step, we have D many key-based random sequence saved in the an encrypted hard disk partition.
- 2. update the derived key to be the last V bytes in the D bytes file.
- 3. move on to run a variant of argon2, except that, every time S many random-access memory lane segments are completed, some V many bytes from D are chosen randomly, not only based on the content the random-access memory, but also based on the D bytes. this step makes ciphart require D+M bytes.
  - if S is large enough, this can be done efficiently without blocking the cpu noticeably, as the randomly obtained V bytes can be read by using seek call over the D bytes.
- 4. delete the D bytes, just to free up the disk space.

so far this is a bad idea as it is not usable due to its slowness when D is large. but what makes it usable is these points:

- we assume root user is not compromised. the vast majority of systems already assume this. so this is not a practical problem for the vast majority of us.
- hard disk partitions where files are saved is properly encrypted by things like dm-crypt using a large random key file that is properly secured as whatever suitable standards. this is technically a simple thing to do. grandmother might find a difficulty doing this on her own, but she wouldn't need to do it by herself as her, say, gnu/linux distribution may take care of this for her.
- the whole process of deriving a memory-harder key is done only once, as the derived key is cached in disk in an encrypted form with strict read permission, for long term use. so subsequent calls of the ciphart executable will simply retrieve the cached object.
- the disk, where the cached object lives, is properly encrypted by using, say, *dm-crypt*, and a large random key file.
- the ciphart executable has SETUID bit set, with its user being a unique user. when ciphart writes a cached object, it saves it with permission mask 600 so that only the unique user can read it. thanks to the SETUID bit, way any user can execute ciphart, and quickly get the memory-harder key only if he supplies the correct password.

this way the user will deal with the system with extreme continence as if a cheap key derivation function is used, except for being a memory-harder derived key. the user will only need to wait for D creation if his key caches are deleted, which doesn't happen except for once when the user migrates to a different machine.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup>i call theorem 1 *the perfect lie* theorem in a sense that a perfect lie is indistinguishable from truth.

• the ciphart executable sleeps if number of attempts exceeds a limit. this will make brute-forcing the cache file by calling ciphart very expensive.

let's see what can the adversary may try to do:

• adversary strategy 1: hack into user's system and execute a program as that user that tries to read the password cache file to obtain the memory-harder key inside it.

**answer:** he will not be able to read the file due to strict read permissions of the cached files as set earlier.

• adversary strategy 2: steal user's hard disk and try to mount it in his system, to login as root and chance permissions of the key cache files.

**answer:** the partition where the cached files are saved are properly encrypted, so he can't see the cached files, let alone changing their read permissions.

 adversary strategy 3: break into machine's root account.

**answer:** he will succeed, but then he can also run a keylogger, which will also break every other key derivation function, even those who do not use key caching, such as *scrypt*, *argon2*, etc.

what we have gained is that the derived key is extremely fast to retrieve, yet requires an amount of memory that D+M, where M is the amount of the required random-access memory. memory-hard key derivation functions can only require M, while ciphart can require D+M and still be faster for later use.

if the system is setup properly, the only assumption that needs to be had is that the account **root** is not compromised, which almost everyone is assuming this already anyway.

so the idea of caching derived keys is just neat and allows to inject crazy amounts of shannon's entropy bits into otherwise simple passwords, thanks to this ridiculous memory-harder ness.

## 5 ciphart

#### 5.1 parameters

- p password.
- s salt.
- M total random-access memory in bytes.
- D total hard-disk memory in bytes.
- L number of memory lanes for concurrency.
- T number of tasks per lane segment.
- S number of lane segments per hard-disk read.
- B minimum caveman's entropy bits to inject into p.
- K output key's size in bytes.

#### 5.2 internal variables

enc encryption function.hash hashing function.

$$C \qquad \leftarrow \begin{cases} 64 \text{ bytes} & \text{if enc is } xchacha20\\ 16 \text{ bytes} & \text{if enc is } aes\\ \dots \end{cases}$$

this to reflect the block size of the encryption algorithm that implements enc.

$$V \qquad \leftarrow \begin{cases} 32 \text{ bytes} & \text{if enc is } xchacha20 \\ 16 \text{ bytes} & \text{if enc is } aes\text{-}128 \\ 32 \text{ bytes} & \text{if enc is } aes\text{-}256 \\ \dots \end{cases}$$

this is the size of the encryption key that's used to solve *ciphart*'s tasks. this is different than the enc-independent K which is possibly used by other encryption algorithms in later stages<sup>9</sup>.  $\leftarrow \max(\lceil VC^{-1} \rceil, T)$ , this is to ensure that we

- $\hat{T} \leftarrow \max(\lceil VC^{-1} \rceil, T)$ . this is to ensure that we have enough encrypted bytes for new keys.
- $\hat{T}$   $\leftarrow \hat{T} (\hat{T} \mod 2) + 2$ . this is to ensure that there is an even number of tasks in a segment. why? because we need a buffer for storing the clear-text and another for storing the output ciphertext.
- $\hat{M}$   $\leftarrow M (M \mod C\hat{T}L) + C\hat{T}L$ . this is to ensure that it is in multiples of  $C\hat{T}L$ . why? so that all segments are of equal lengths in order to simplify ciphart's logic. e.g. it wouldn't be nice if the last segments were of unequal sizes.
- $\hat{D}$   $\leftarrow D (D \mod C) + C$ . this is to ensure that it is in multiples of block sizes.
- $G \leftarrow \hat{M}C^{-1}\hat{T}^{-1}L^{-1}$ . total number of segments per lane.
- $m_i$  C-bytes memory for  $i^{th}$  task in the  $\hat{M}$ -bytes pad.
- $n_l \leftarrow lG\hat{T}$ . nonce variable for  $l^{th}$  lane with at least 64 bits.
- $f \leftarrow 0$ . a flag indicating whether the  $\hat{M}$ -bytes pad is filled.
- $v \leftarrow * \text{hash}(p \parallel s, V)$ . a pointer to the first byte where V-bytes key is stored.

#### 5.3 output

- k K-bytes key.
- $\hat{B}$  actual caveman's entropy bits that were injected into p, where  $\hat{B} \geq B$ .

#### 5.4 steps

steps of *ciphart* is shown in algorithm 1. this corresponds to *argon2d*. adding a *ciphart-i* variant is a trivial matter,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>at the expense of losing the meaning of caveman's entropy bits.

i just didn't do it yet because my threat model currently doesn't benefit from a password independent variant.

```
algorithm 1: ciphart
 1 while 1 do
       for g = 0, 1, ..., G - 1 do
 2
           for l = 0, 1, ..., L - 1 do
 3
               for t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1 do
  4
                  i \leftarrow gLT + lT + t;
  5
                  if t < T - 1 then
  6
                     j \leftarrow i + 1;
  7
                  else if t = T - 1 then
  8
                  j \leftarrow i - T + 1;
  9
                  m_i \leftarrow \texttt{enc}(m_i, n_l, v);
10
11
                  n_l \leftarrow n_l + 1;
                  if f = 0 then
12
                     v \leftarrow m_i \mod (gLTC + tC - V);
13
                     if v \geq gLTC - V then
14
                         v \leftarrow v + lTC;
15
                  else
16
                     v \leftarrow m_j \mod (M - LTC + tC - V);
17
                     if v \geq gLTC + tC - V then
18
                        v \leftarrow v + LTC;
19
                     else if v > qLTC - V then
20
                         v \leftarrow v + lTC;
21
           N \leftarrow N + LT;
22
           if N \geq 2^B then
23
               g_{\text{last}} \leftarrow g;
24
              go to line 27;
25
26
      f \leftarrow 1;
27 i \leftarrow g_{\text{last}}LT;
28 k \leftarrow \text{hash}(m_{i+0T} || m_{i+1T} || \dots || m_{i+(L-1)T}, K);
29 \hat{B} \leftarrow log_2N;
30 return k, \bar{B}
```

## 6 parallelism

since iterations of the loop in line 3 in algorithm 1 are fully independent of one other, they can quite happily utilise L cpu cores, specially when segment sizes, T, are larger.

### 7 memory-hardness

*Proof.* algorithm 1 is just a variation of argon2d, except that it uses an encryption function, enc, instead of a hashing functionn. so if argon2d is memory-hard, then so is ciphart.

## 8 summary