

OSY.SSI [2018] [8]

In the news...

► TODO

# Please prepare for the lab

Bring your laptop.

We will try something new that may or may not work.

Also install WireShark + PuTTY (or `ssh`) on your *host* device.

In the previous episode...

$\emptyset \cdot \text{DiD} \cdot \text{OTP/IND-1T}$

●<sub>0</sub> ●<sub>1</sub> ●<sub>2</sub> ●<sub>3</sub> ●<sub>4</sub> ●<sub>5</sub> ●<sub>6</sub> ●<sub>7</sub> ●<sub>8</sub> ●<sub>9</sub> ●<sub>10</sub> ●<sub>11</sub> ●<sub>12</sub> ●<sub>13</sub> ●<sub>14</sub> ●<sub>15</sub> EXAM

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- ▶ On the other hand it is very impractical
- ▶ And in any case it only works for confidentiality



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- ▶ Trade security for practicability: replace “impossible” by “hard”
- ▶ Address data integrity (By defining a game)
- ▶ See what we need to establish a secure channel

# Table of Contents

Hard problems

# Statistics vs. complexity

Maybe instead of an “impossible to break” system, we just need “hard to break” systems.

What do we mean, “hard”?

# Complexity

## Algorithmic time complexity

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Examples:

- ▶ Finding the max element in a list of size  $n$  can be done in  $O(n)$ .
- ▶ Sorting a list of size  $n$  can be done in  $O(n \log n)$ .

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- ▶ **N****P****TIME**, or simply **NP** : Problems for which we can check a solution in time  $O(\text{poly})$
- ▶ In particular,  $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}$ .

Three remarks:

- ▶ Problems in P or NP are always computable
- ▶ P and NP are well-defined thanks to the ECTT
- ▶  $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{PSPACE}$

# P and NP problems

Problems in **P**:

- ▶ linear programming, greatest common divisor
- ▶ Type inference
- ▶ Determining if a number is prime

Problems in **NP**:

- ▶ Hamiltonian path
- ▶ Traveling salesman problem
- ▶ Knapsack / Subset-sum

General intuition: **P** is “easy”, **NP** is “interesting”

There are many, easier, harder, or unrelated classes: **L**, **PP**, **NP-hard**, **BQP**, **AM**, **#P**, **EXPTIME**, etc.

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**Exercise:** Prove that  $P = NP$  or find a counter-example.



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But we can try.

## Trying to get a one-way function

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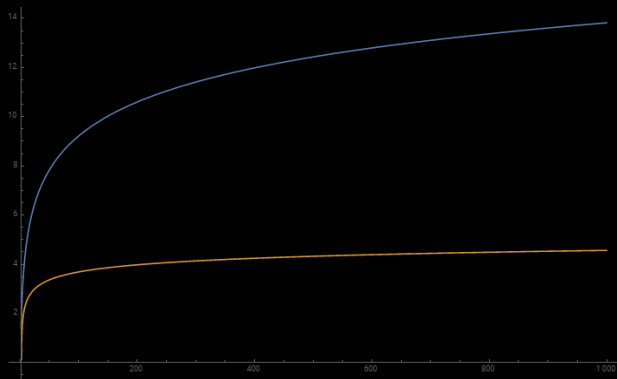
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$$\exp \left( \left( \sqrt[3]{\frac{64}{9}} + o(1) \right) (\ln n)^{\frac{1}{3}} (\ln \ln n)^{\frac{2}{3}} \right)$$

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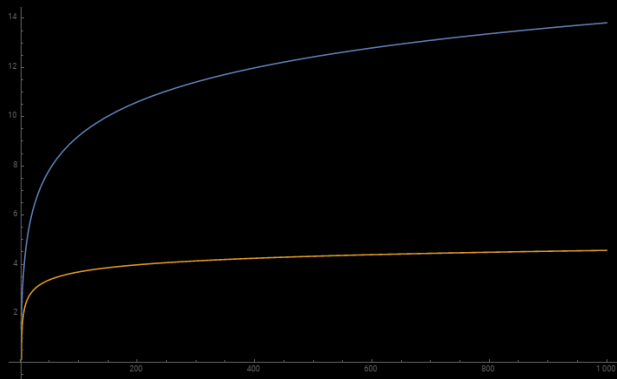
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So for instance, if we have  $p, q > 2^{1600}$ , the cost of factorisation is around...  $2^{128}$ .

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Consider a cyclic group  $G = \langle g \rangle = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, g^4, \dots, g^{p-1}\}$

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(Other examples:  $\mathbb{F}_{p^k}^\times$ ,  $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^k})$ .)

Computing  $g^k$  for any  $k$  is easy

Example:  $g^{12345} = g^{12345 \bmod 16} = g^9 = 14$

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- ▶ If  $G = E(\mathbb{F}_p)$  the best known classical algorithm is Pollard's  $\rho$   $O(\sqrt{p})$

# Candidate hard problems in crypto

We already have

- ▶ **Integer factorisation**: Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , find  $d$  such that  $d|n$ .
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Example:  $p \approx 2^{256}$  gives a user cost of  $\approx 2^8$  and an adversarial cost of  $\approx 2^{128}$ .

There are many other candidates out there, we focus on these two which are the most widely in use today.

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- ▶ What is an obvious attack on the protocol? We need **integrity**.

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As stated, any adversary can alter the message and re-compute  $\sigma$ ... there is no adversarial resistance. We need *signer commitment*.



# Cryptographic integrity

We want to mathematically capture integrity.

*Given a message  $m$ , we want an algorithm that produces  $\sigma(m)$  such that  $\sigma(m') \neq \sigma(m)$*

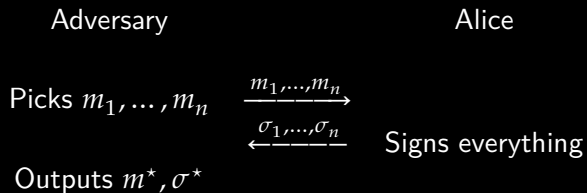
Is that satisfactory?

As stated, any adversary can alter the message and re-compute  $\sigma$ ... there is no adversarial resistance. We need *signer commitment*.

In other terms, only the signatory should be able to compute  $\sigma$ . Can we make this desire precise?

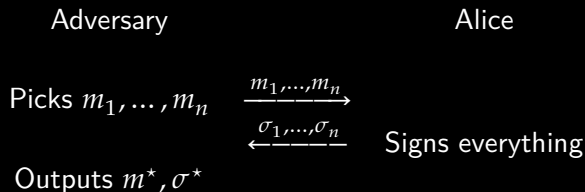
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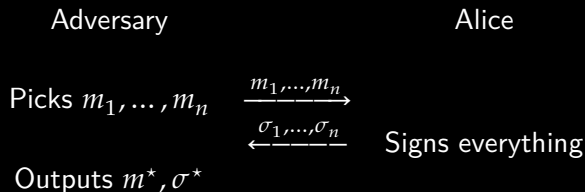


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Goal: design an algorithm  $\sigma$  such that the probability of the adversary winning is negligible!

## Cryptographic integrity: Digital signatures

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Best known generic algorithm requires factorisation of  $n$ .

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$$\text{OAEP}(m) = (m \oplus G(r)) \parallel (H(m \oplus G(r)) \oplus r), \quad H \text{ and } G \text{ are "random oracles"}$$

## Random what?

The security of digital signatures is a famously difficult problem, that often makes use of one or several **random oracles**.

An oracle is a black-box entity that can be queried and provides a response according to some prescription.

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ROs are impossible to implement but they provide useful “ideal” models. In practice: hash functions.

## Superb so now we have provably secure communications

- ▶ ECDHE: key exchange assuming DLOG in the GGM with uniform KDF
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Or it is?

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| ▶ How fast is it?   |      |

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| ▶ How do I generate the randomness?   | TRNG  |
| ▶ How fast is it?   | Slow. |

# Hybrid PK-SK

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- ▶ Symmetric encryption (e.g. Chacha20, AES) instead of public-key encryption
- ▶ MACs (e.g. Poly1305) instead of public-key signatures
- ▶ A mode of operation must be chosen.

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Go to a HTTPS website and look at what they're using!

# 1 slide summary

- ▶ PKI certification → long term, personal signature key
- ▶ Authenticated key exchange → ephemeral, shared session key
- ▶ Symmetric encryption+MAC (or AEAD) → confid + integr. on channel
- ▶ Key sizes chosen to ensure heuristic effort of about  $2^{128}$  → security level
- ▶ Key management is essential and critical Use HSMs
- ▶ Randomness is essential and critical Use TRNGs

E.g.: Use Curve25519 + EdDSA + SHA3 + AES-GCM-SIV

# Take away

- ▶ Learn about cryptography (I can give references)
- ▶ It is very easy to design a system that the designers themselves can't break, especially if the designers have little experience in breaking things.  
(Schneier's Law)
- ▶ Proofs have preconditions and precise scope. GAME-MEANS notation.
- ▶ Using proper cryptography is necessary but not sufficient for security

# Pause

After the pause: Internet Lab!

## Bonus: flipping a coin over a telephone

Note  $f$  is a one-way function,  $\parallel$  denotes concatenation.

1. Alice chooses random numbers  $a_0, a_1$  and computes  $b_i = f(i \parallel a_i)$ .
2. Alice sends Bob  $b_0$  and  $b_1$ , and indicates that she bets on  $b_A$ ,  $A \in \{0, 1\}$ .
3. Bob flips a coin and announces the result  $B$ .
4. Alice reveals  $A$  and  $a_0, a_1$ .
5. Bob can check that  $f(A \parallel a_A) = b_A$ , and if  $A = B$  then Alice wins otherwise she loses.