## Modern Alice's Adventures in Cryptoland

## Francisco Rodríguez-Henríquez

-】 Cinvestav, México


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## Terminology

- Cryptology: All-inclusive term used for the study of secure communication over non-secure channels and related problems.
- Cryptography: The process of designing systems to realize secure communications over non-secure channels.
- Cryptanalysis: The discipline of breaking cryptographic systems
- Plaintext: Message that we want to transmit in a secure way.
- ciphertext: Resulting document after performing encryption.
- key: Secret information utilized for encrypting/decrypting documents.


## Enigma security model



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(1) To figure out who are Hitler's receiver partners [traffic analysis]

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(2) To read [decrypt] the original message
(3) To get Hitler's secret key.
(4) To modify the contents of the original message.
(3) To impersonate Hitler

## Kerckhkoff Principle


"La sécurité repose sur le secret de la clé, et non sur le secret de l'algorithme." It is assumed that the adversary knows the cryptographic algorithm being used. Therefore, the security of the algorithm must be based on:

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- The quality (cryptographic strength) of the algorithm
- Secret key search space (size in bits of the secret key)


## Secret Sharing - Diffie Hellman


${ }^{1}$ https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Diffie-Hellman_Key_Exchange:svg $\bar{\equiv}$

## Design problem: How to share a secret?



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- Alice and Bob adecide to work in the $\mathbb{Z}_{p}$ group, with $p$ a large odd prime. They also chose a generator $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$ (i.e., $\operatorname{Ord}(g)=p-1$ ).
- Alice and Bob Choose $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}$, respectively
- Alice and Bob compute a shared secret as,

$$
K=\left(g^{x}\right)^{y}=\left(g^{y}\right)^{x}
$$

Note: This protocol can only be secure against passive attackers

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Protocol's security lies in the computational intractability of solving the Discrete
Logarithm Problem (DLP), namely,
Given a prime $p$ and a generator $g, h \in[1, p-1]$, find an integer $x$ (if it exists) such that, $g^{x} \equiv h \bmod p$.

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 Diffie-Hellman Protocol 1976

- Diffie and Hellman published their protocol in their breakthrough paper, Diffie, W.; Hellman, M. (1976). "New directions in cryptography". IEEE Transactions on Information Theory. 22 (6): 644-654."
- Diffie and Hellman won the 2015 Turing award
- Since its publication in 1976, "New directions in cryptography" has inspired many new ideas in the discipline. In this talk we will review four different versions of this protocol [!]]

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- Building blocks:
- Block ciphers and stream ciphers
- Hash functions
- Public key crypto-schemes
- ...


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answer: $2^{343} \equiv 304 \bmod 419$.

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answer: $2^{343} \equiv 304 \bmod 419$.
More generally: Given $g, h \in \mathbb{F}_{q}^{*}$, find an integer $x$ (if one exists) such that, $g^{x} \equiv h$, where $q=p^{\prime}$ is the power of a prime

## Elliptic-curve-based cryptography



- Elliptic-curve-based cryptography (ECC) was independently proposed by Victor Miller and Neal Koblitz in 1985.
- It took more than two decades for ECC to be widely accepted and become the most popular public-key cryptographic scheme (above its archrival RSA)
- Nowadays ECC is massively used in everyday applications


## Elliptic-curve-based cryptography



An elliptic curve is defined by the set of affine points $(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_{p} \times \mathbb{F}_{p}$, with $p>3$ an odd large prime, which satisfies the short Weierstrass equation given as,

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

along with a point at infinity denoted as $\mathcal{O}$.
Let $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ be the set of points that satisfy the elliptic curve equation above. This set forms an Abelian group with order (size) given as, $\# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)=h \cdot r$, where $r$ is a large prime and the cofactor is a small integer.

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- Interest: smaller keys than usual cryptosystems (RSA, ElGamal, ...)
- But there's more:
- Bilinear pairings
- Isogenous elliptic curves


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- We assume that the discrete logarithm problem (DLP) in $\mathbb{G}_{1}$ is hard


## The Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) Protocol



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## Algorithm 1 The elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman protocol

Public parameters: Prime $p$, curve $E / \mathbb{F}_{p}$, point $P=(x, y) \in E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ of order $r$
Phase 1: Key pair generation
Alice
1: Select the private key $d_{A} \stackrel{\Phi}{\leftarrow}[1, r-1] \quad$ 1: Select the private key $d_{B}{ }^{\Phi}{ }^{\Phi}[1, r-1]$
2: Compute the public key $Q_{A} \leftarrow d_{A} P \quad$ 2: Compute the public key $Q_{B} \leftarrow d_{B} P$
Phase 2: Shared secret computation

## Alice

3: Send $Q_{A}$ to Bob
4: Compute $R \leftarrow d_{A} Q_{B}$

## Bob

3: $\quad$ Send $Q_{B}$ to Alice
4: Compute $R \leftarrow d_{B} Q_{A}$

Final phase: The shared secret is $x$-coordinate of the point $R$

How to efficiently compute the Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman (ECDH) Protocol?


## The Montgomery ladder



## A famous elliptic curve: Curve25519

- Curve25519 satisfies the Montgomery elliptic curve,

$$
E: y^{2}=x^{3}+48666 \cdot x^{2}+x
$$

- Curve25519 is used for generating shared-secrets on applications such as TLS 1.3 and WhatsApp, among others.
- Proposed by Daniel J. Bernstein en 2006, it became massively popular around 2013


Daniel J. Bernstein: "Curve25519: New Diffie-Hellman Speed Records". Public Key Cryptography 2006: 207-228

## Algorithm 2 Left-to-right Montgomery ladder [Montgomery'87]

Require: $P=\left(u_{P}, v_{P}\right) \in E_{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right), k=\left(k_{n-1}=1, k_{n-2}, \ldots, k_{1}, k_{0}\right)_{2}$
Ensure: $u_{Q=k \cdot P}$
1: $R_{0} \leftarrow \mathcal{O} ; R_{1} \leftarrow u_{P} ;$
2: for $i=n-1$ downto 0 do
3: $\quad$ if $k_{i}=1$ then
4: $\quad R_{0} \leftarrow R_{0}+{ }_{(P)} R_{1} ; \quad R_{1} \leftarrow 2 R_{1}$
5: else
6: $\quad R_{1} \leftarrow R_{0}+{ }_{(P)} R_{1} ; \quad R_{0} \leftarrow 2 R_{0}$
7: end if
8: end for
9: return $u_{Q} \leftarrow R_{0}$

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Ensure: \(u_{Q=k \cdot P}\)
    \(R_{0} \leftarrow \mathcal{O} ; R_{1} \leftarrow u_{P} ;\)
    for \(i=n-1\) downto 0 do
        if \(k_{i}=1\) then
                \(R_{0} \leftarrow R_{0}+{ }_{(P)} R_{1} ; \quad R_{1} \leftarrow 2 R_{1}\)
        else
            \(R_{1} \leftarrow R_{0}+{ }_{(P)} R_{1} ; \quad R_{0} \leftarrow 2 R_{0}\)
        end if
    end for
    return \(u_{Q} \leftarrow R_{0}\)
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Peter L. Montgomery.: "Speeding the Pollard and elliptic curve methods of factorization ". Math. Comput. 48(177), 243-264 (1987)

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Ensure: $u_{Q=k \cdot P}$
1: $R_{0} \leftarrow \mathcal{O} ; R_{1} \leftarrow u_{P}$;
for $i=n-1$ downto 0 do
if $k_{i}=1$ then
$R_{0} \leftarrow R_{0}+{ }_{(P)} R_{1} ; \quad R_{1} \leftarrow 2 R_{1}$
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Remark 1: The Montgomery ladder maintains the invariant $R_{1}-R_{0}=P$ by computing at each iteration

$$
\left(R_{0}, R_{1}\right) \leftarrow \begin{cases}\left(2 R_{0}, 2 R_{0}+P\right), & \text { if } k_{i}=0 \\ \left(2 R_{0}+P, 2 R_{0}+2 P\right), & \text { if } k_{i}=1 .\end{cases}
$$

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end if
end for
return $u_{Q} \leftarrow R_{0}$

Remark 2: If the difference between the points $R_{1}$ and $R_{0}$ is known, it is possible to derive efficient differential addition formulas, namely,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow Z_{P} \cdot\left(\left(U_{R_{1}}+Z_{R_{1}}\right) \cdot\left(U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\right)+\left(U_{R_{1}}-Z_{R_{1}}\right) \cdot\left(U_{R_{0}}+Z_{R_{0}}\right)\right)^{2} \\
& Z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow u_{P} \cdot\left(\left(U_{R_{1}}+Z_{R_{1}}\right) \cdot\left(U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\right)-\left(U_{R_{1}}-Z_{R_{1}}\right) \cdot\left(U_{R_{0}}+Z_{R_{0}}\right)\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Using the standard trick of making $Z_{P}=1$ this can be computed at a cost of $2 \mathbf{m}+1 \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u P}}+2 \mathbf{s}+6 \mathbf{a}$

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        end if
    end for
    return \(u_{Q} \leftarrow R_{0}\)
```

Remark 2: Similarly, the operation of doubling the point $R_{0}$, can be efficiently computed as,

$$
\begin{aligned}
U_{R_{0}} & \leftarrow\left(U_{R_{0}}+Z_{R_{0}}\right)^{2} \cdot\left(U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\right)^{2} \\
T & \leftarrow\left(U_{R_{0}}+Z_{R_{0}}\right)^{2}-\left(U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\right)^{2} \\
Z_{R_{0}} & \leftarrow\left[a_{24} \cdot T+\left(U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\right)^{2}\right] \cdot T,
\end{aligned}
$$

which can be computed at a cost of $2 \mathbf{m}+1 \mathbf{m}_{\mathrm{a} 24}+2 \mathbf{s}+4 \mathbf{a}$, where $\mathbf{m}_{\mathrm{a} 24}$ stands for one multiplication by the constant $a_{24}=\frac{A+2}{4}$.

## Algorithm 2 Left-to-right Montgomery ladder [Montgomery'87]

Require: $P=\left(u_{P}, v_{P}\right) \in E_{A}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right), k=\left(k_{n-1}=1, k_{n-2}, \ldots, k_{1}, k_{0}\right)_{2}$
Ensure: $u_{Q=k \cdot P}$
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7: end if
8: end for
9: return $u_{Q} \leftarrow R_{0}$

Total computational cost: In summary, the computational cost of the Montgomery ladder is,

$$
n \cdot\left(4 \mathbf{m}+1 \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{a} 24}+1 \mathbf{m}_{\mathbf{u P}}+4 \mathbf{s}+8 \mathbf{a}\right)+1 \mathbf{m}+1 \mathbf{i} .
$$

In the RFC 7748 [essentially] this algorithm is called $\times 25519$ (with $n=255$ )

## Algorithm 3 Low-level left-to-right Montgomery ladder

```
Require: \(\quad P=\left(u_{P}, v_{P}\right) \in E_{A} / \mathbb{F}_{p}, k=\left(k_{n-1}=1, k_{n-2}, \ldots, k_{1}, k_{0}\right)_{2}, a_{24}=(A+2) / 4\)
Ensure: \(u_{Q=k P}\)
    1: Initialization: \(U_{R_{0}} \leftarrow 1, Z_{R_{0}} \leftarrow 0, U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow u_{P}, Z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow 1\),s \(\leftarrow 0\)
    2: for \(i \leftarrow n-1\) downto 0 do
    3: \# timing-attack countermeasure
    4: \(s \leftarrow s \oplus k_{i}\)
    5: \(\quad U_{R_{0}}, U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow \operatorname{cswap}\left(s, U_{R_{0}}, U_{R_{1}}\right)\)
    6: \(\quad z_{R_{0}}, z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow \operatorname{cswap}\left(s, z_{R_{0}}, z_{R_{1}}\right)\)
    7: \(s \leftarrow k_{i}\)
    8: \# common operations
    9: \(\quad A \leftarrow U_{R_{0}}+Z_{R_{0}} ; B \leftarrow U_{R_{0}}-Z_{R_{0}}\)
10: \# addition
11: \(c \leftarrow U_{R_{1}}+z_{R_{1}} ; D \leftarrow U_{R_{1}}-z_{R_{1}}\)
12: \(C \leftarrow C \times B ; D \leftarrow D \times A\)
13: \(\quad U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow D+C ; U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow U_{R_{1}}^{2}\)
14: \(\quad z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow D-C ; Z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow z_{R_{1}}^{2} ; z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow u_{P} \times z_{R_{1}}\)
15: \# doubling
16: \(\quad A \leftarrow A^{2} ; B \leftarrow B^{2}\)
17: \(\quad U_{R_{0}} \leftarrow A \times B\)
18: \(A \leftarrow A-B\)
19: \(\quad Z_{R_{0}} \leftarrow a_{24} \times A ; Z_{R_{0}} \leftarrow Z_{R_{0}}+B ; Z_{R_{0}} \leftarrow Z_{R_{0}} \times A\)
20: end for
21: \(U_{R_{0}}, U_{R_{1}} \leftarrow \operatorname{cswap}\left(s, U_{R_{0}}, U_{R_{1}}\right)\)
22: \(z_{R_{0}}, z_{R_{1}} \leftarrow \operatorname{cswap}\left(s, z_{R_{0}}, z_{R_{1}}\right)\)
23: \(z_{R_{0}} \leftarrow z_{R_{0}}^{-1} ; \quad u_{R_{0}} \leftarrow U_{R_{0}} \times Z_{R_{0}}\)
24: return \(u_{Q} \leftarrow u_{R_{0}}\)
```


## Design problem: How to establish a one-round tripartite shared-secret protocol?



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- At first, used to attack supersingular elliptic curves
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- Short digital signatures, Aggregate signatures
- Boneh-Lynn-Shacham, 2001
- Boneh-Gentry-Lynn-Shacham, 2004
- cryptocurrencies, Pinocchio, Zcash 2013

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- The protocol works because of,

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Antoine Joux: "A One Round Protocol for Tripartite Diffie-Hellman ". ANTS 2000: 385-394

## Recommended key sizes (circa 2013)

| Security <br> in bits | RSA <br> $\\|N\\|_{2}$ | DL: $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ <br> $\\|p\\|_{2}$ | DL: $\mathbb{F}_{2^{m}}$ <br> $m$ | ECC <br> $\\|q\\|_{2}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 80 | 1024 | 1024 | 1500 | 160 |
| 112 | 2048 | 2048 | 3500 | 224 |
| 128 | 3072 | 3072 | 4800 | 256 |
| 192 | 7680 | 7680 | 12500 | 384 |
| 256 | 15360 | 15360 | 25000 | 512 |

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-     * Nowadays, the extension $\mathbb{F}_{2 \text { 2880 }}$ is estimated to provide a security level of around 60 bits (see [Granger-Kleinjung-Zumbrägel'18], [AMOR'16]).


Barbulescu-Gaudry-Joux-Thomé: "A Heuristic Quasi-Polynomial Algorithm for Discrete Logarithm in Finite Fields of Small Characteristic ". EUROCRYPT 2014: 1-16
[Apocalyptic] scenario for the next years: The arrival of large-scale quantum computers

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A quantum computer implementation of Peter Shor algorithm for factorization of integer numbers will produce that the computational effort for breaking elliptic-curve discrete logs would go from billions of years to hundred of hours.
[Apocalyptic] scenario for the next years: The arrival of large-scale quantum computers


Along with ECC, RSA and DSA public key crypto-schemes will also go to extinction

## Answers against the [Apocalyptic] scenario: Post-Quantum Cryptography (PQC)

- About two years ago, NIST launched a Post-Quantum Cryptography (PQC) standardization contest. NIST stated that
'regardless of whether we can estimate the exact time of the arrival of the quantum computing era, we must begin now to prepare our information security systems to be able to resist quantum computing. "
- The main focus of the contest is to find new PQC signature/verification and shared key establishment protocols. The latter task should be done using a scheme known as Key Encapsulation Mechanism (KEM).


## Answers against the [Apocalyptic] scenario: Post-Quantum Cryptography (PQC)

- Out of 82 initial candidates only 23 made it to the second round. The surviving candidates have been classified in six categories.
- Here at Co-Crypto2019, we will be hearing a lot about,
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Design problem: How to construct a post-quantum Diffie-Hellman protocol?


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Secret Key
$[\mathfrak{a}]=\mathfrak{l}_{1}^{e_{1}^{a}} \ldots \mathfrak{l}_{n}^{e_{n}^{a}}$
$\left\{e_{1}^{a} \cdots e_{n}^{a}\right\}$

Public key
$E_{A}=E_{0} /[\mathfrak{a}]$
Shared secret
$E_{A B}=E_{b} /[\mathfrak{a}]$

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Castryck-Lange-Martindale-Panny-Renes: "CSIDH: An Efficient Post-Quantum Commutative Group Action ". ASIACRYPT (3) 2018: 395-427

## Thanks



- All pictures shown in this presentation were taken by the author in the Botero Museum and the Museo de oro at Bogotá
- Thanks are due to Dr. Jean-Luc Beuchat for designing several of the animations of this presentation

