

Cryptography

Discrete-log and elliptic-curve cryptography

Jean-Sébastien Coron

Université du Luxembourg

May 15, 2014

Discrete-log based cryptography

- Discrete-log based group
 - The multiplicative group \mathbb{Z}_p^*
- Discrete-log based cryptosystems
 - ElGamal encryption: security proof
 - Diffie-Hellmann key exchange
 - Schnorr signature scheme
- Elliptic-Curve cryptography

The multiplicative group \mathbb{Z}_p^*

- Let p be a prime integer.
 - The set \mathbb{Z}_p^* is the set of integers modulo p which are invertible modulo p .
 - The set \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a cyclic group of order $p - 1$ for the operation of multiplication modulo p .
- Generators of \mathbb{Z}_p^* :
 - There exists $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that any $h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ can be uniquely written as $h = g^x \pmod p$ with $0 \leq x < p - 1$.
 - The integer x is called the *discrete logarithm* of h to the base g , and denoted $\log_g h$.

Finding a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^*

- Finding a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* for prime p .
 - The factorization of $p - 1$ is needed. Otherwise, no efficient algorithm is known.
 - Factoring is hard, but it is possible to generate p such that the factorization of $p - 1$ is known.
- Generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* if and only if $g^{(p-1)/q} \neq 1 \pmod p$ for each prime factor q of $p - 1$.
 - There are $\phi(p - 1)$ generators of \mathbb{Z}_p^*

Generating p and q

- Generate p such that $p - 1 = 2 \cdot q$ for some prime q .
 - Generate a random prime p .
 - Test if $q = (p - 1)/2$ is prime. Otherwise, generate another p .
- Finding a generator g for \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Generate a random $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ with $g \neq \pm 1$
 - Check that $g^q \neq 1 \pmod p$. Otherwise, generate another g .
 - Complexity :
 - There are $\phi(p - 1) = q - 1$ generators.
 - g is a generator with probability $\simeq 1/2$.

- Discrete logarithm problem :
 - Given g, h such that $h = g^x$ for $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$, find x .
- Computing discrete logarithms in \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Hard problem: no efficient algorithm is known for large p .
 - Brute force: enumerate all possible x . Complexity $\mathcal{O}(p)$.
 - Baby step/giant step method: complexity $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{p})$.

- We want to work in a prime-order subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Generate p, q such that $p - 1 = 2 \cdot q$ and p, q are prime
 - Find a generator g of \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Then $g' = g^2 \pmod p$ is a generator of a subgroup G of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of prime order q .

- Key generation
 - Let G be a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of prime order q and g a generator of G .
 - Let $x \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$. Let $h = g^x \pmod p$.
 - Public-key : (g, h) . Private-key : x
- Encryption of $m \in G$:
 - Let $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Output $c = (g^r, h^r \cdot m)$
- Decryption of $c = (c_1, c_2)$
 - Output $m = c_2 / (c_1^x) \pmod p$

- To recover m from $(g^r, h^r \cdot m)$
 - One must find h^r from $(g, g^r, h = g^x)$
- Computational Diffie-Hellmann problem (CDH) :
 - Given (g, g^a, g^b) , find g^{ab}
 - No efficient algorithm is known.
 - Best algorithm is finding the discrete-log
- However, attacker may already have some information about the plaintext !

- Indistinguishability of encryption (IND-CPA)
 - The attacker receives pk
 - The attacker outputs two messages m_0, m_1
 - The attacker receives encryption of m_β for random bit β .
 - The attacker outputs a “guess” β' of β
- Adversary's advantage :
 - $\text{Adv} = |\Pr[\beta' = \beta] - \frac{1}{2}|$
 - A scheme is IND-CPA secure if the advantage of any computationally bounded adversary is a negligible function of the security parameter.

- Reductionist proof :
 - If there is an attacker who can break IND-CPA with non-negligible probability,
 - then we can use this attacker to solve DDH with non-negligible probability
- The Decision Diffie-Hellman problem (DDH) :
 - Given (g, g^a, g^b, z) where $z = g^{ab}$ if $\gamma = 1$ and $z \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} G$ if $\gamma = 0$, where γ is random bit, find γ .
 - $\text{Adv}_{DDH} = |\Pr[\gamma' = \gamma] - \frac{1}{2}|$
 - No efficient algorithm known when G is a prime-order subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .

- We get (g, g^a, g^b, z) and must determine if $z = g^{ab}$
 - We give $pk = (g, h = g^a = g^x)$ to the adversary
 - $sk = a = x$ is unknown.
 - Adversary sends m_0, m_1
 - We send $c = (g^b = g^r, z \cdot m_\beta)$ for random bit β
 - Adversary outputs β' and we output $\gamma' = 1$ if $\beta' = \beta$ and 0 otherwise.

- If $\gamma = 0$, then z is random in G
 - Adversary gets no information about β
 - $\Pr[\beta' = \beta | \gamma = 0] = 1/2$
 - $\Pr[\gamma' = \gamma | \gamma = 0] = 1/2$
- If $\gamma = 1$, then $z = g^{ab} = g^{rx} = h^r$ where $h = g^x$.
 - c is a legitimate El-Gamal ciphertext.
 - $\Pr[\beta' = \beta | \gamma = 1] = 1/2 + \text{Adv}_A$
 - $\Pr[\gamma' = \gamma | \gamma = 1] = 1/2 + \text{Adv}_A$
- Analysis
 - $\Pr[\gamma' = \gamma] = (1/2 + 1/2 + \text{Adv}_A)/2 = 1/2 + \frac{\text{Adv}_A}{2}$
 - $\text{Adv}_{DDH} = \frac{\text{Adv}_A}{2}$

Security of El-Gamal

- $\text{Adv}_{DDH} = \frac{\text{Adv}_A}{2}$
 - From an adversary running in time t_A with advantage Adv_A , we can construct a DDH solver running in time $t_A + \mathcal{O}(k)$ with advantage $\frac{\text{Adv}_A}{2}$.
 - where k is the security parameter.
- El-Gamal is IND-CPA under the DDH assumption
 - Conversely, if no algorithm can solve DDH in time t with advantage $> \varepsilon$, no adversary can break El-Gamal in time $t - \mathcal{O}(k)$ with advantage $> 2 \cdot \varepsilon$

Chosen-ciphertext attack

- El-Gamal is not chosen-ciphertext secure
 - Given $c = (g^r, h^r \cdot m)$ where $pk = (g, h)$
 - Ask for the decryption of $c' = (g^{r+1}, h^{r+1} \cdot m)$ and recover m .
- The Cramer-Shoup encryption scheme (1998)
 - Can be seen as extension of El-Gamal.
 - Chosen-ciphertext secure (IND-CCA) without random oracle.

The Cramer-Shoup cryptosystem

- Key generation
 - Let G a group of prime order q
 - Generate random $g_1, g_2 \in G$ and randoms $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Let $c = g_1^{x_1} g_2^{x_2}$, $d = g_1^{y_1} g_2^{y_2}$, $h = g_1^z$
 - Let H be a hash function
 - $pk = (g_1, g_2, c, d, h, H)$ and $sk = (x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2, z)$
- Encryption of $m \in G$
 - Generate a random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - $C = (g_1^r, g_2^r, h^r m, c^r d^{r\alpha})$
 - where $\alpha = H(g_1^r, g_2^r, h^r m)$

The Cramer-Shoup cryptosystem

- Decryption of $C = (u_1, u_2, e, v)$
 - Compute $\alpha = H(u_1, u_2, v)$ and test if :

$$u_1^{x_1+y_1\alpha} u_2^{x_2+y_2\alpha} = v$$

- Output “reject” if the condition does not hold.
- Otherwise, output :

$$m = e/(u_1)^z$$

- INC-CCA security
 - Cramer-Shoup is secure secure against adaptive chosen ciphertext attack
 - without the random oracle model assumption

Diffie-Hellman protocol

- Diffie-Hellman key exchange
 - Enables Alice and Bob to establish a shared secret key
 - without having talked to each other before.
- Key generation
 - Let p a prime integer and G a subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of order q and generator g .
 - Alice generates $x \xleftarrow{R} G$ and publishes $X = g^x \pmod p$. She keeps x secret.
 - Bob generates a random $y \xleftarrow{R} G$ and publishes $Y = g^y \pmod p$. He keeps y secret.

- Key establishment
 - Alice sends X to Bob. Bob sends Y to Alice.
 - Alice computes $K_a = Y^x \pmod p$
 - Bob computes $K_b = X^y \pmod p$

$$K_a = Y^x = (g^y)^x = g^{xy} = (g^x)^y = X^y = K_b$$

- Alice and Bob now share the same key
 - $K = K_a = K_b$
 - K can be used as a session key to symmetrically encrypt data.

Security of Diffie-Hellman

- Computational Diffie-Hellman problem (CDH) :
 - Given (g, g^a, g^b) , find g^{ab}
 - No efficient algorithm is known.
 - Best algorithm is finding the discrete-log.
- Man in the middle attack
 - An attacker in the middle can impersonate Alice or Bob and establish a shared key with Alice and Bob.
 - The parties must be authenticated
 - With a PKI, the parties may sign g^a and g^b

- The MQV protocol
 - Designed by Menezes, Qu and Vanstone in 1995.
 - Efficient authenticated Diffie-Hellman protocol.
 - Requires a PKI.
 - Standardized in the public-key standard IEEE P1363.
- The HMQV protocol (2005)
 - Improvement of MQV with formal security analysis.

The HMQV protocol

- Setup:
 - Alice has public-key g^a and sk a
 - Bob's has public-key g^b and sk b
- The HMQV protocol:
 - Alice and Bob run a basic DH key exchange
 - Alice sends $X = g^x$ to Bob
 - Bob sends $Y = g^y$ to Alice
 - Alice computes $\sigma_A = (YB^e)^{x+da}$
 - Bob computes $\sigma_B = (XA^d)^{y+eb}$
 - Alice and Bob set $K = H(\sigma_A) = H(\sigma_B)$
 - where $d = H_2(X, ID_{Bob})$ and $e = H_2(Y, ID_{Alice})$

Security properties of HMQV

- HMQV is proven secure in the Canetti-Krawczyk model
 - in the random oracle model
 - under the CDH assumption
- The model covers:
 - Impersonation attacks
 - An attacker impersonates Alice and establishes a session key with Alice and Bob.
 - Known-key attacks
 - If a session key is leaked, this does not affect the security of other session keys.

The Schnorr signature scheme

- Key generation:
 - Let G be a group of order q and let g be a generator.
Generate a private key $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - The public key is $y = g^x \pmod p$
- Signature generation of m
 - Generate a random k in \mathbb{Z}_q
 - Let $r = g^k$, $e = H(m||r)$ and $s = (k - xe) \pmod q$
 - Signature is (s, e) .
- Signature verification of (s, e)
 - Let $r_v = g^s y^e \pmod p$ and $e_v = H(M||r_v)$
 - Check that $e_v = e$.

- Security of Schnorr signatures
 - Provably secure against existential forgery in a chosen message attack
 - in the random oracle model under the discrete-log assumption
 - using the “Forking lemma” (Pointcheval and Stern, 1996)

- Defines a new group different from \mathbb{Z}_p^*
 - Different assumption
 - Advantage: shorter keys
- Elliptic-curve equation over \mathbb{Z}_p :
 - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$
- Group structure
 - The set of points together with \mathcal{O} can define a group structure

- Let $P = (x_1, y_1) \neq \mathcal{O}$ and $Q = (x_2, y_2) \neq \mathcal{O}$. Then $P + Q = (x_3, y_3)$ with:

$$x_3 = \lambda^2 - x_1 - x_2$$

$$y_3 = \lambda(x_1 - x_3) - y_1$$

$$\lambda = \begin{cases} \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}, & \text{if } P \neq Q \\ \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1}, & \text{if } P = Q \end{cases}$$

- $P = (x_1, y_1) \neq \mathcal{O} \Rightarrow -P = (x_1, -y_1)$

- **Double-and-add Algorithm:**
input P and $d = (d_{\ell-1}, \dots, d_0)$
output $Q = dP$

 $Q \leftarrow P$
for i from $\ell - 2$ downto 0 do
 $Q \leftarrow 2Q$
 if $d_i = 1$ then $Q \leftarrow Q + P$
output Q

- Ordinary elliptic-curves
 - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$
 - Let n be the number of points, including \mathcal{O} .
 - We must have $n = k \cdot q$ where q is a large prime.
 - then work in subgroup of order q .
- Computing the group order n :
 - Schoof's algorithm.
 - Schoof-Elkies-Atkin algorithm.
 - or use standardized curves.

- Key generation
 - Let \mathbb{G} be an elliptic curve subgroup of prime order q and G a generator of \mathbb{G} .
 - Let $\alpha \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$. Let $H = \alpha G$.
 - Public-key : (G, H) . Private-key : α
- Encryption of m :
 - Let $r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - Output $c = (rG, (rH)_x \oplus m)$ where $(rH)_x$ denotes the x coordinate of rH .
- Decryption of $c = (C_1, c_2)$
 - Output $m = (\alpha C_1) \oplus c_2$