

Secret agreement and Digital signature

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Summary

In this document a cryptographic theoretical primitive is presented, among with two public key protocols, one of secret agreement and another of digital signature. The primitive does not depend on the problem of discrete logarithm or the factorization. Therefore, the usual approaches related to the solution of the discrete logarithm cannot be applied.

Key and constant sizes are reduced. The signature, for example, requires 256 bits to achieve 128 bits of security. Another sizes are possible.

The document includes three parts. First, a description of the primitive and protocols proposed, second, a brief security analysis, and finally a section of proofs.

Cryptographic structure description

Basic function

We need to define a function in order to use it as a basis for the round construction. The function takes two parameters, $f(B, A)$, A and B belong to a given set with some properties. Let's call this set S . Given that the A parameter has a different function than the B one, f function can be written as $f_A(B) = f(B, A)$, depending on the context.

The function f must be non-associative, so $f(f(A, B), C) \neq f(A, f(B, C))$ in general terms. The function f can be commutative or not. The important property needed is, we can call, restricted commutativity, i.e. $f(f(A, B), f(C, D)) = f(f(A, C), f(B, D))$. In the left and right parts of the equality B and C can be swapped given raise to the same result.

The f function with the second parameter fixed, $f_A(B)$, must be a permutation, so $f_A(B) = f_A(C) \Leftrightarrow B = C$.

Mixing procedure and cryptographic elements

Independently of the particular definition of f , we can define a mixing procedure m of the elements that form the keys and constants or values to sing that works only if the f function meets the requisites of the previous section. Here we prove that if $f_A(B)$ is a cryptographic permutation that meets the restricted commutativity, the same is extended to the mixing result of m .

We will work with lists of N elements of S depending of the size in bits of the elements of S and the desired security level. So, if S contains n -bit elements we need $N = 256/n$, N elements in the lists produces a 256 bit output.

Cryptographic elements

Once fixed N , the size of the list of elements of S , which serves as parameters and result of the m function, we define L as the set of lists of length N of elements in S .

In the final result we will end in a mixing function $R = m(T, K)$, where R , T and K will be lists of N elements of S , so $R \in L$, $T \in L$, $K \in L$ are lists of N elements of the S set. If E is such a list E_i will be an element of this list, in the range $[0, N - 1]$. We define also $E_{-1} = E_{N-1}$ for the sake of simplicity.

Round function

We define a round function $R = r(T, K)$, which must be non-associative and meet the restricted commutativity, while not being necessarily commutative, so $r(r(A, B), r(C, D)) = r((A, C), r(B, D))$, besides $r_K(T)$ is a cryptographic permutation.

The round function is defined with the following procedure:

```
function  $r(T, K)$ 
  for  $i$  from 0 to  $N - 1$  do
    /// initial mixing of  $K$  and  $T$ 
     $R_i \leftarrow f(T_i, K_i)$ 
  end for
  for  $i$  from 0 to  $N - 1$  do
    /// mixing of  $R$  with itself sequentially and accumulating diffusion
    /// assuming  $R_{-1} = R_{N-1}$ 
     $R_i \leftarrow f(R_i, R_{i-1})$ 
  end for
  return  $R$ 
end function
```

This function is non-associative and meets the restricted commutativity (*proof 1*). Circumstantially can be commutative if f is, although this is not a requirement in order to make the mix work and meet the required properties. $r_K(T)$ function is a cryptographic permutation since knowing the values of K and R , is perfectly reversible if it's also f .

Repeating round mixing

The function m , which calls V times the round function r , takes the same arguments as the round function. Let's define it as $R = m(T, K)$. The procedure is the following:

```

function  $m(T, K)$ 
   $R \leftarrow T$ 
  for  $V$  times do
     $R \leftarrow r(R, K)$ 
  end for
  return  $R$ 
end function

```

We need to define how many rounds are needed, which depends on the f function and its complexity. In any case they aren't a lot. $V = 64$ is a reasonable value, being possible to justify less or more rounds, depending on the actual function f .

This function m , is neither commutative nor associative, besides meeting the mentioned property of restricted commutativity (*proof 2*), so, and this is important in order to define the protocols of secret agreement and digital signature, $m(m(A, B), m(C, D)) = m(m(A, C), m(B, D))$, where A , B , C and D are lists of N elements in the set S .

Fixing the second parameter of m we get a cryptographic permutation, so $m_K(T)$ is a cryptographic permutation. This is obvious to see due to r reversibility, since knowing R and K , the initial T is recoverable without ambiguity.

Computationally intractable problem

Once defined the m function, the computationally intractable problem is, in the equality $R = m(T, K)$, knowing R and T , find the corresponding K . This will be developed in more detail at the initial security analysis.

Secret agreement and digital signature protocols

Once defined the cryptographic primitive m , operating with two elements of L , lists of N elements in the set S , in such a way that $m_A(B)$ is a cryptographic permutation, m is not commutative and not associative but meets the property $m(m(A, B), m(C, D)) = m(m(A, C), m(B, D))$, we can define both procedures, one to share a secret and another to credit a digital signature.

Let's call further on the sides of communication over an unsafe channel as A and B , not to be confused with the previous use of A and B in the properties definition.

Secret agreement

The procedure to end with a shared secret is the following:

A and B share a public constant value C , $C \in L$.

A chooses a secret key K , $K \in L$ and sends to B : $A_I = m(C, K)$

B chooses a secret key Q , $Q \in L$, and sends to A : $B_I = m(C, Q)$

A computes $A_J = m(K, C)$ and operates it with B_I , $S_A = m(B_I, A_J)$

B computes $B_J = m(Q, C)$ and operates it with A_I , $S_B = m(A_I, B_J)$

By the property of restricted commutativity we have that $S_A = S_B$, since expanding the values of S_A and S_B we have $m(m(C, K), m(Q, C)) = m(m(C, Q), m(K, C))$. Let's note that m is not commutative, and so $m(K, C) \neq m(C, K)$ and $m(Q, C) \neq m(C, Q)$. This way, $S = S_A = S_B$, cannot be inferred from K , Q , A_I or B_I .

Digital signature

The procedure to do a digital signature, including the credential definition and the signature itself, is the following:

The signer first chooses two keys $K, Q \in L$, which must be kept secret. Q will be used for signing the required values. Also chooses a public constant C , $C \in L$. Then computes two public values $P = m(C, K)$ and $R = m(Q, K)$.

Now, the only signer secret that must be kept is Q , and its public credentials are C , P and R .

To sign a value H , $H \in L$, the signature S , is $S = m(H, Q)$.

The verifier must compute $V = m(H, C)$, and check the following equality holds:

$$m(S, P) = m(V, R)$$

which is the same as verifying, expanding the formula, that:

$$m(m(H, Q), m(C, K)) = m(m(H, C), m(Q, K))$$

which is true due to the restricted commutativity property if the signature is valid.

Initial security analysis

1 f function is not associative. This means that while rounds of mixing are done, the complexity increases, without possibility of reduction as brackets cannot be removed. Otherwise, the result of all the mixing process will be a simple formula with powers of the initial elements, and so vulnerable to attacks. Non-associativity prevents this.

2 Algorithms related to solutions or methods to improve the calculation of discrete logarithm are not applicable here. The mixing process prevents this if we're not working with a perfectly ordered cyclic group with an exponentiation of a generator.

3 Security relies also on the robustness of the basic f function, there are functions meeting all the requirements presented here that led to absolutely unsafe cryptosystems.

Proofs

Proof 1

To do this proof we need to use the result of *proof 3*.

We need to prove that $R = r(r(A, B), r(C, D)) = r(r(A, C), r(B, D))$.

Let's define $A = [a_i]$, $B = [b_i]$, $C = [c_i]$, $D = [d_i]$, $R = [r_i]$ lists of elements of M . Let's focus on the i -th result of R , r_i .

We define $IA_i = (a_{-1}b_{-1}) \dots (a_ib_i)$ and $IC_i = (c_{-1}d_{-1}) \dots (c_id_i)$. IA_i is the i -th result of the list resulting of the operation $r(A, B)$, and IC_i the result of $r(C, D)$.

The element R_i , applying the r function is $(IA_{-1}IC_{-1}) \dots (IA_iIC_i)$. We focus on an arbitrary element of this expression, which takes the form (IA_jIB_j) , $j \in [0, i]$. Expanding this late formula we find:

$$(IA_jIB_j) = [(a_{-1}b_{-1}) \dots (a_jb_j)][(c_{-1}d_{-1}) \dots (c_jd_j)]$$

applying the transformation of *proof 3*, this is the same as:

$$[(a_{-1}b_{-1})(c_{-1}d_{-1})] \dots [(a_jb_j)(c_jd_j)]$$

and by restricted commutativity we find that at each member $(a_kb_k)(c_kd_k) = (a_kc_k)(b_kd_k)$, $k \in [-1, j]$. This means that inside the initial formula the elements b_i and c_i can be interchanged and so the initial proposition is correct, we can exchange the lists B and C getting the same resulting list R .

Proof 2

To do this proof we need the result of *proof 3*.

What we get is applying repeatedly K , to the right, to T inside m . This formula can be expressed as:

$$(TKKK \dots K)$$

To prove that $m(m(A, B), m(C, D)) = m(m(A, C), m(B, D))$, we get by expanding this expression:

$$(AB \dots B)(CD \dots D) \dots (CD \dots D) = (AC \dots C)(BD \dots D) \dots (BD \dots D)$$

which is true according the result of *proof 3*.

Restricted commutativity extension - proof 3

Basic operator definition

We define an operator \star , based on some underlying set and satisfying the following property, named restricted commutativity:

$$(a \star b) \star (c \star d) = (a \star c) \star (b \star d)$$

From left to right sides of the equality b and c are interchanged.

An example of such an operator can be:

$$a \star b = ab^2$$

Then:

$$(a \star b) \star (c \star d) = ab^2(cd^2)^2 = ab^2c^2d^4 = ac^2b^2d^4 = (a \star c) \star (b \star d)$$

Nomenclature

In order to simplify, for now on the operator \star will be represented as an space, and the order of application will be from left to right in absence of explicit brackets. Then:

$a \star b$ is written as ab

$(abcd \dots)$ means $((((ab)c)d) \dots)$

Property proof

We need to prove that inside a set of equal sized tuples, we can rearrange elements in a given way and get the same final result of operation the tuples either way, provided the operator used meets the restricted commutativity property.

An example of this tuple equality is:

$$(abc)(def)(ghi)(jkl) = (adjg)(behk)(cfil) = r$$

$2 \times n$ series of tuples

Starting with:

$$(a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1} a_n)(b_1 b_2 \dots b_{n-1} b_n)$$

we can add brackets:

$$((a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1}) a_n)((b_1 b_2 \dots b_{n-1}) b_n)$$

and by definition of the restricted commutativity:

$$((a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1})(b_1 b_2 \dots b_{n-1}))(a_n b_n)$$

this reduces the problem one step. By induction we get:

$$(a_1 a_2 \dots a_n)(b_1 b_2 \dots b_n) = (a_1 b_1)(a_2 b_2) \dots (a_n b_n)$$

In general, $2 \times n$ and $n \times 2$ series of tuples can interchange its values in a given form. The proven formula is:

$$(a_1 a_2 \dots a_{n-1} a_n)(b_1 b_2 \dots b_{n-1} b_n) = (a_1 b_1)(a_2 b_2) \dots (a_{n-1} b_{n-1})(a_n b_n)$$

$n \times m$ series of tuples

We need to prove that:

$$\begin{aligned} & (a_{1,1} a_{1,2} \dots a_{1,n})(a_{2,1} a_{2,2} \dots a_{2,n}) \dots (a_{m,1} a_{m,2} \dots a_{m,n}) \\ & \quad = \\ & (a_{1,1} a_{2,1} \dots a_{m,1})(a_{1,2} a_{2,2} \dots a_{m,2}) \dots (a_{1,n} a_{2,n} \dots a_{m,n}) \\ & \quad = r \end{aligned}$$

Adding brackets to the first term of the equality we get:

$$((a_{1,1} a_{1,2} \dots a_{1,n-1}) a_{1,n})((a_{2,1} a_{2,2} \dots a_{2,n-1}) a_{2,n}) \dots ((a_{m,1} a_{m,2} \dots a_{m,n-1}) a_{m,n})$$

And using the result for $2 \times n$ tuples we reduce to:

$$((a_{1,1}a_{1,2} \dots a_{1,n-1})(a_{2,1}a_{2,2} \dots a_{2,n-1}) \dots (a_{m,1}a_{m,2} \dots a_{m,n-1}))(a_{1,n}a_{2,n} \dots a_{m,n})$$

simplifying the problem one step. By induction we get in the end:

$$(a_{1,1}a_{2,1} \dots a_{m,1})(a_{1,2}a_{2,2} \dots a_{m,2}) \dots (a_{1,n}a_{2,n} \dots a_{m,n})$$

Which is the second term of the above equation. This result can be extended to subtuples, inside a more complex formula, as in the following example:

$$(a(bc))(d(ef)) = (ad)((bc)(ef))$$

This result is useful in order to do other proofs on formulas based on an operator that meets the property of restricted commutativity.