Cryptanalysis

Discrete Log Based Systems

John Manferdelli JohnManferdelli@hotmail.com

© 2004-2020, John L. Manferdelli.

This material is provided without warranty of any kind including, without limitation, warranty of non-infringement or suitability for any purpose. This material is not guaranteed to be error free and is intended for instructional use only.

JLM 202003050

HMAC's concluded

- HMAC(K, text)= H((K⊕opad)||H((K⊕ipad)||text)))
- H is a cryptographic hash like SHA-256
- ipad, the inner pad: the byte 0x36 repeated B times where B is key size
- opad, the outer pad: the byte 0x5c repeated B times
- Verification requires knowledge of K.

Discrete log based public key systems

Discrete Log

- If $b=a^x$, then $L_a(b)=x$. $L_a(y)$ is the discrete log function.
- If $g = b^x$, then $L_a(g) = xL_a(b)$. $L_a(b_1b_2) = L_a(b_1) + L_a(b_2)$
- Discrete Log Problem (DLP): Given p, prime, a: <a>=F_p*. B (mod p), a, unknown, find L_a(b).
- Computational Diffie Hellman Problem (CDHP): Given p, prime, <a>=F_p*. a^a (mod p), a^b (mod p), find a^{ab} (mod p).
- Theorem: CDHP \leq_P DLP. If the factorization of p-1 is known and f(p-1) is O((ln(p))°) smooth then DLP and CDHP are equivalent.
- Conclusion: Exponentiation is a one way trap-door function.

El Gamal cryptosystem

- Alice, the private keyholder, picks a large prime, p, where p-1 also has large prime divisors (say, p= 2rq+1) and a generator, g, for F_p*.
 <g>= F_p*. Alice also picks a random number, a (secret), and computes A=g^a (mod p). Alice's public key is <A, g, p>.
- To send a message, m, Bob picks a random b (his secret) and computes B= g^b (mod p). Bob transmits (B, mA^b)= (B, C).
- Alice decodes the message by computing CB-a=m.
- Without knowing a, an adversary has to solve the Computational Diffie Hellman Problem to get m.
- Note: b must be random and never reused!

El Gamal Example

- Alice chooses
 - p=919. g=7.
 - a=111, A= 7^{111} = 461 (mod 919).
 - Alice's Public key is <919, 7, 461>
- Bob wants to send m=45, picks b= 29.
 - $-B=7^{29}=788 \pmod{919}$, $461^{29}=902 \pmod{919}$,
 - $C= (45)(902) = 154 \pmod{919}$.
 - Bob transmits (788, 154).
- Alice computes (788)⁻¹¹¹ = 902⁻¹ (mod 919).
 - $-(54)(902)+(-53)(919)=1.54=902^{-1} \pmod{919}$
 - Calculates m= (154) (54)=45 (mod 919).

El Gamal Signature

- $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_q^*$. A picks a random as in encryption.
- Signing: Signer picks k: 1≤k≤p-2 with (k, p-1)= 1 and publishes g^k. k is secret.
- $\operatorname{Sig}_{K}(M,k)=(t,d)$
 - $t = g^k \pmod{p}$
 - $d=(M-gt)k^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$
- $Ver_K(M,t,d)$ iff $g^{kt} t^d = g^M \pmod{p}$
- Notes: It's important that M is a hash otherwise there is an existential forgery attack. It's important that k be different for every message otherwise adversary can solve for key.

Timing

- Finding g takes about O(lg(p)³) operations, so does primality testing and raising g to the a power mod p.
- Encryption is also O(lg(p)³) and so is decryption.
- Note that key generation is cheap but for safety, p>w², where w is the "computational power" of the adversary.

Finding generators (Gauss)

• Find a generator, g, for F_p^* , $n=(p-1)=p_1^{e1}p_2^{e2}\dots p_k^{ek}$. while () { choose a random $g\in G$ for $(i=1;\ i<=k;\ k++)$ { b= $g^{n/pi}$ if (b==1) break; } if (i>k) return g

• G has $\phi(n)$ generators. Using the lower bound for $\phi(n)$ the probability that g in line 2 is a generator is at least 1/(6 ln ln n)

Attack on reused nonce

- Suppose Bob reuses b for two different messages m₁ and m₂.
- An adversary, Eve, can see <B, C₁> and <B, C₂> where C_i= Bm_i (mod p).
- Suppose Eve discovers m₁.
- She can compute $m_2 = m_1 C_2 C_1^{-1}$ (mod p).
- Don't reuse b's!

DSA

Alice

- -2^{159} <q< 2^{160} , $2^{511+64t}$ <p< $2^{512+64t}$, $1 \le t \le 8$, q|p-1
- Select primitive root x (mod p); compute: g=x^{(p-1)/q} (mod p)
- Picks a random, 1cacq-1. A= g^a (mod p)
- Public Key: (p, q, g, A). Private Key: a.
- Signature Generation
 - Pick random k, r= (g^k (mod p)) (mod q). Note: k must be different for each signature.
 - $s = k^{-1}(h(M)+ar) \pmod{q}$. Signature is (r,s)
- Verification
 - $u = s^{-1}h(x) \pmod{q}, v = (rs^{-1}) \pmod{q}$
 - Is $g^u A^v = r \pmod{p}$?
- Advantages over straight El Gamal
 - Verification is more efficient (2 exponentiations rather than 3)
 - Exponent is 160 bits not 768

Baby Step Giant Step --- Shanks

- g^x=y (mod p).
- m ~ √p.
- Compute g^{mj}, 0≤j<m.
- Sort (j, g^{mj}) by second coordinate.
- Pick i at random, compute yg⁻ⁱ (mod p).
- If there is a match in the tables yg⁻ⁱ= g^{mj} (mod p).
- x= mj+i is the discrete log.

Baby Step Giant Step Example

- p=193. $\lfloor v(p) \rfloor$ =13. m= 14. a= 5. b=41.
- $2 \times 193 + (-77) \times 5 = 1$, $a^{-1} = 116$. $a^{-14} = 189 \pmod{193}$.

j	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
a ^j	5	25	125	46	37	185	153	186	158	18	90	64	127	56
ba ^{-mj}	26	77	78	74	90	26	89	30	73	94	10	153	160	132

- So ba^{-(14x5)}= 90 = a^{11} (mod 193).
- Thus $b = a^{14x5+11} = a^{81} \pmod{193}$.
- $L_5(41)=193$.

Discrete log Pollard r

```
• X_{i+1} = f(X_i)
      - f(x_i) = bx_i, if x_i \in S_1.
      - f(x_i) = x_i^2, if x_i \in S_2.
      - f(x_i) = ax_i, if x_i \in S_3.
• x_i = a^{a[i]}b^{b[i]}.
      - a[i] = a[i], if x_i \in S_1.
      - a[i] = 2a[i], if x_i \in S_2.
      - a[i] = a[i] + 1, if x_i \in S_3.
      - b[i] = b[i] + 1, if x_i \in S_1.
      - b[i] = 2b[i], if x_i \in S_2.
      - b[i] = b[i], if x_i \in S_3.
• x_{2i}=x_i \rightarrow a_{2i}-a_i=L_a(b)(b_{2i}-b_i)
```

Pollard ρ example

• p=229, n=191, b=228, a=2. L₂(228)=110

i	Xi	a _i	b _i
1	228	0	1
2	279	0	2
3	92	0	4
4	184	1	4
5	205	1	5
6	14	1	6
7	28	2	6
8	256	2	7
9	152	2	8
10	304	3	8
11	372	3	9
12	121	6	18
13	12	6	19
14	144	12	38

i	X _{2i}	a _{2i}	b _{2i}
1	279	0	2
2	184	1	4
3	14	1	6
4	256	2	7
5	304	3	8
6	121	6	38
7	144	12	152
8	235	48	154
9	72	48	118
10	14	96	119
11	256	97	120
12	304	98	51
13	121	5	104
14	144	10	163

• $x_{14} = x_{28}$, $(b_{14} - b_{28}) = 125 \pmod{191}$, $L_2(228) = 125^{-1} (a_{28} - a_{14}) = 110$.

Pohlig-Hellman

- $p-1 = \prod_{i} q_i^{r[i]}$.
- Solve $a^x = y \pmod{p}$ for $x \pmod{q_i^{r[i]}}$ and use Chinese Remainder Theorem.
- $x = x_0 + x_1 q + x_2 q^2 + ... + x^{r[i]-1} q^{r[i]-1}$.
- $x (p-1)/q = x_0(p-1)/q + (p-1)(...)$
- So $b^{(p-1)/q} = a^{x[0](p-1)/q}$. Solve for x_0 .
- The put $g=ba^{-x[0]}$ and solve $g^{(p-1)/(q \times q)} = a^{x[1](p-1)/q}$.
- This costs $O(\sum_{i=1}^r e_i(\lg(n) + \sqrt{q_i}).$

Pohlig-Hellman example

- p=251. a= 71, b=210, $a > F_{251}$. n=250= 2 x 5³.
- $L_{71}(210)=1 \pmod{2}$.
- $x = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 + x_2 = x_0 + x_1 + x_2 = x_0 + x_1 = x_0 + x_2 = x_0 + x_1 = x_0 + x_2 = x_0 = x_0 + x_1 = x_0 + x_2 = x_0 = x_0 + x_1 = x_0 + x_2 = x_0 = x_0$
- So $a^{n/5} = 71^{20}$. $b^{n/5} = 210^{20} = 149$.
 - $x_0 = L_{20}(149) = 2.$
 - $x_1 = 4$
 - $x_2 = 2$
- $x= 2+ 4x5 + 2x25= 72 \pmod{125}$
- Applying CRT: L₇₁(210)= 197.

Index Calculus

- $g^x = y \pmod{p}$. $B = (p_1, p_2, ..., p_k)$.
- Precompute
 - $g_{j}^{x} = p_{1}^{a_{1}} p_{2}^{a_{2}} \dots p_{k}^{a_{k}}$
 - $x_j = a_{1j} \log_g (p_1) + a_{2j} \log_g (p_2) + ... + a_{kj} \log_g (p_k)$
 - If you get enough of these, you can solve for the log_q(p_i)
- Solve
 - Pick s at random and compute y $g^s = p_1^{c_1} p_2^{c_2} \dots p_k^{c_k}$ then
 - $-\log_g(y)+s = c_1\log_g(p_1) + c_2\log_g(p_2) + ... + c_k\log_g(p_k)$
- This takes O(e (1+ln(p)ln(ln(p))) time.
- LaMacchia and Odlyzko used Gaussian integer index calculus variant to attack discrete log.

Index Calculus Example

- p=229. a=6. <a>= F_{229}^* . n=228. b=13. S={2,3,5,7,11}.
- Step 1
 - 1. 6^{100} (mod 229)= $180= 2^2 \times 3^2 \times 5^1 \times 7^0 \times 11^0$.
 - 2. 6^{18} (mod 229)= $176= 2^4 \times 3^0 \times 5^0 \times 7^0 \times 11^1$.
 - 3. 6^{12} (mod 229)= $165= 2^0 \times 3^1 \times 5^1 \times 7^0 \times 11^1$.
 - 4. 6^{62} (mod 229)= $154= 2^1 \times 3^0 \times 5^0 \times 7^1 \times 11^1$.
 - 5. 6^{143} (mod 229)= $198= 2^1 \times 3^2 \times 5^0 \times 7^0 \times 11^1$.
 - 6. 6^{206} (mod 229)= 210= $2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^1 \times 7^1 \times 11^0$.
- Taking L_a() of both sides, we get:
 - 1. $100 = 2 L_a(2) + 2L_a(3) + L_a(5) \pmod{228}$
 - 2. $18 = 4L_a(2) + L_a(11) \pmod{228}$
 - 3. $12=L_a(3)+L_a(5)+L_a(11) \pmod{228}$
 - 4. $62 = L_a(2) + L_a(7) + L_a(11) \pmod{228}$
 - 5. $143=L_a(2)+2L_a(3)+L_a(11) \pmod{228}$
 - 6. $206 = L_a(2) + L_a(3) + L_a(5) + L_a(7) \pmod{228}$

Index Calculus example - continued

Review

- p=229. a=6. <a>= F₂₂₉*. n=228. Solving, we got:
- L_a(2)= 21 (mod 228)
- L_a(3)= 208 (mod 228)
- L_a(5) = 98 (mod 228)
- L_a(7)= 107 (mod 228)
- L_a(11)= 162 (mod 228)

Step 2:

- Recall b=13. Pick k=77
- 13 x 6⁷⁷= 147 = 3 x 7² (mod 229)
- L₆(13)= (L₆(3)+2L₆(7)-77)= 117 (mod 228)

Diffie Hellman key exchange

Alice

Bob

A1:
$$s= min(p size)$$
, $N_a in \{0, ... 2^{256}-1\}$

A2: Check (p,q,g) X,
Auth_B, pick y in
$$\{0,...q-1\}$$

 $K = X^y$

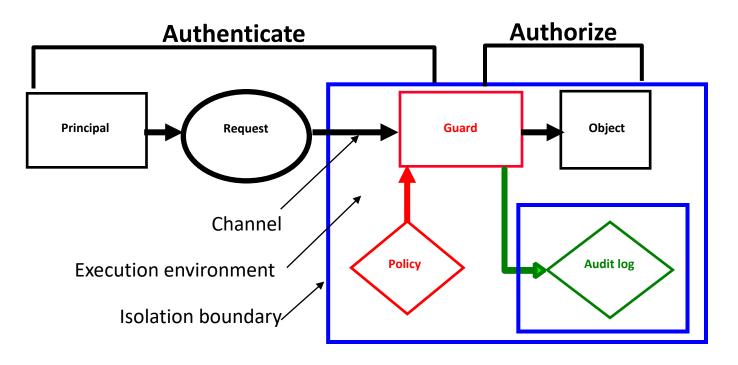
B2: Check Y, Auth_A

$$K = Y^{x}$$

DH key exchange example

- p=3547, g=2.
- Alice: a= 7.
- Bob: b=17.
- $A \rightarrow B_1$: $A=128 (=2^7)$, $Sign_A(SHA-2(128||r_1))$
- B \rightarrow A₁: B=3380(=2¹⁷), Sign_B(SHA-2(3380||r₂))
- $K = 128^{17} = 3380^7 = 362$.

Access Control: authentication and authorization



- Authentication is process of identifying a security principal. Here are some ways:
 - Login/password or smart card/pin (user)
 - Cryptographic Hash (program)
 - Ability to decrypt (channel)

Authentication

- When logging on to a computer you enter
 - user name and
 - password
- The first step is called identification. You announce who you are.
- The second step is called authentication. You prove that you are who you claim to be.
- To distinguish this type of 'authentication' from other interpretations, we may refer specifically to entity authentication: The process of verifying a claimed identity.

Authentication

```
Login: jlm
Password: ******
Welcome John Manferdelli
>
```

Problems with Passwords

- Authentication by password is widely accepted and not too difficult to implement.
- Managing password security can be quite expensive; obtaining a valid password is a common way of gaining unauthorised access to a computer system.
- Typical issues
 - how to get the password to the user,
 - forgotten passwords,
 - password guessing,
 - password spoofing,
 - compromise of the password file.

Guessing Passwords

- Exhaustive search (brute force): Try all possible combinations of valid symbols up to a certain length.
- Intelligent search: search through a restricted name space, e.g.
 passwords that are somehow associated with a user like name,
 names of friends and relatives, car brand, car registration number,
 phone number,..., or try passwords that are generally popular.
- Typical example for the second approach: dictionary attack trying all passwords from an on-line dictionary.
- You cannot prevent an attacker from accidentally guessing a valid password, but you can try to reduce the probability of a password compromise.

Password Salting

- To slow down dictionary attacks, a salt can be appended to the password before encryption and stored with the encrypted password.
 - If two users have the same password, they will now have different entries in the file of encrypted passwords.
 - Example: Unix uses a 12 bit salt.

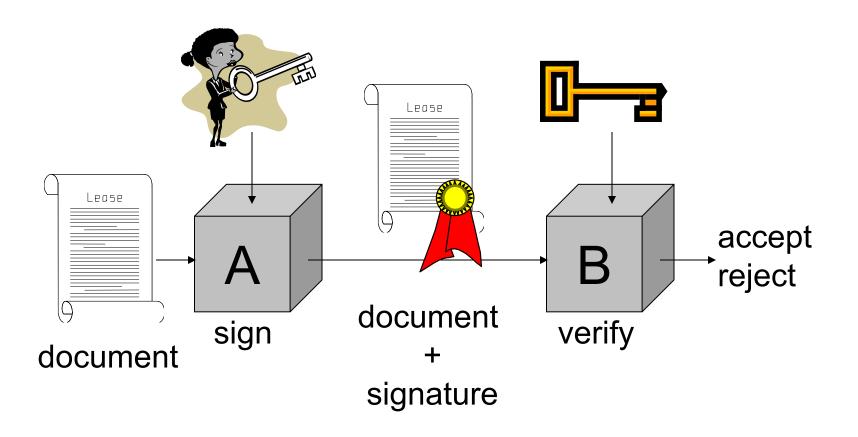
Access Control Matrix

- Capabilities:
 - access rights are stored with the subject
 - rows of the access control matrix
- Access Control Lists (ACLs)
 - access rights are stored with the object.
 - columns of the access control matrix.

	bill.doc	edit.exe	fun.com
Alice	-	{exec}	{exec,read}
Bob	{read,write}	{exec}	{exec,read,write}

Jan 18, 2007 29

Digital signatures



Digital Signatures

- A has a public verification key and a private signature key (→ public key cryptography).
- A uses her private key to compute her signature on document m.
- B uses a public verification key to check the signature on a document m he receives.
- This provides non-repudiation.
- Signature algorithm= hash+padding+private key operation

Bleichenbacher Attack on PKCS1

- Chosen-ciphertext attack.
- RSA PKCS #1 v1.5 : c = (00 || 02 || r || 0 || m)^e mod n
- Attacker can test if 16 MSBs of plaintext = '02'.
- Attack: to decrypt a given ciphertext C do:
 - Pick $r \in Z_n$.
 - Compute C' = $r^e \cdot C = (r \cdot PKCS1(M))^e$.
 - Send C' to oracle and use response.

Side-Channel Attacks

- Some attack vectors ...
 - Fault Attacks
 - Timing Attacks
 - Cache Attacks
 - Power Analysis
 - Electromagnetic Emissions
 - Acoustic Emissions

End

JLM 20101208 34

Berlekamp factorization

```
• f(x) = \prod_{i=1}^{t} f_i(x) over F_p, deg(f(x)) = n. f_i(x) irreducible.
                 F=\{f(x)\};
                 for(i=1; i<n;i++)
                      x^{iq} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q_{ii} x^{j} \pmod{f(x)}, q_{ii} eF_{n}
                 Find basis \langle v_1, ..., v_t \rangle of null space of (Q-I_n);
                 // W= W_0, ..., W_{n-1}. W(x) = W_0+W_1 x+ ... +W_{n-1} x^{n-1}
                 for(i=1; i \triangleleft t;i++) {
                      for (h(x)\varepsilon F, deg(h)>1;) {
                            Compute (h(x), v_i(x)-a), a \varepsilon F_p;
                            Replace h(x) in F with these;
                 return (F);
    O(n^3+tpn^2), t= # irreducible factors. Can be reduced to O(n^3+t \lg(p)n^2).
```

JLM 20101208 35

Berlekamp factorization example

Factor x⁷-1 over GF(2).

- Adding and solving get:
 - 1
 - $x^4 + x^2 + x = x(x^3 + x + 1)$
 - $x^6 + x^5 + x^3 = x^3(x^3 + x^2 + 1)$
 - Dividing into x^7 -1, we get: (x+1)