

MTAT.07.003 CRYPTOLOGY II

How to Model Cryptographic Primitives and Protocols

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Abstraction is a key to successs

- ▷ **Cryptographic constructions are complex**
 - ◇ Irrelevant techincal details obscure security proofs.
 - ◇ A good abstraction clarifies what is meant by security.
 - ◇ An abstraction highlights which properties are relevant for security.
- ▷ **Cryptographic constructions are not provably secure**
 - ◇ Security of most cryptographic constructions is based on *intractability*.
 - ◇ So far provable lower bounds are *trivial* for all computational problems.
 - ◇ It is also *highly* unlikely that such proofs *do* exist in a *compact* form.
- ▷ **Abstraction allows to escape intractability issues**
 - ◇ We just assume that necessary cryptographic primitives exist.
 - ◇ The actual implementation of such primitives is out of our scope.

Illustrative Example

2048-bit RSA

Key generation

1. Choose two 1024-bit prime numbers p and q .
2. Compute Let $n = pq$, choose $e \leftarrow_u \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$ and set $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$.
3. Public key is (n, e) and secret key is (n, e, d) .

Encryption

1. Let $\text{pad} : \{0, 1\}^{128} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ be a predefined embedding.
2. To encrypt $m \in \{0, 1\}^{128}$, output $c \leftarrow \text{pad}(m)^e \pmod{n}$.

Decryption

1. To decrypt $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, compute $x \leftarrow c^d \pmod{n}$.
2. Extract m from x and verify that $\text{pad}(m) = x$.
3. Output \perp in case of failure and m otherwise.

The corresponding abstraction

RSA-2048

Key generation

1. Choose two 1024-bit prime numbers p and q .
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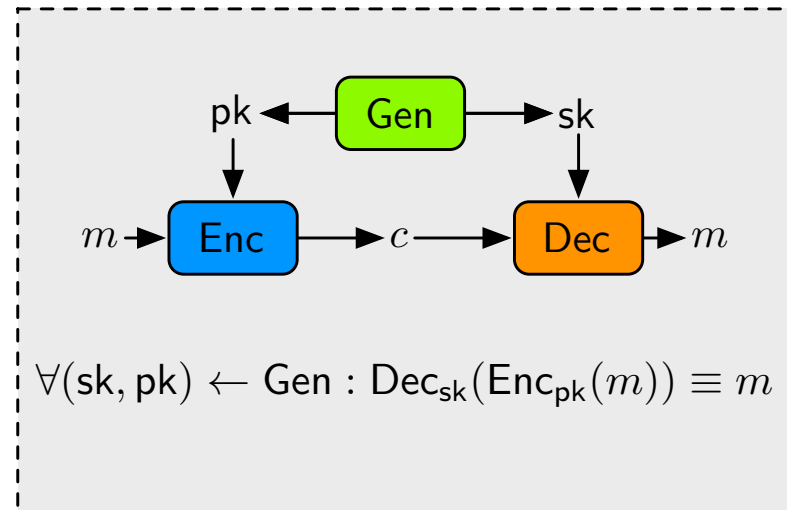
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Public Key Cryptosystem

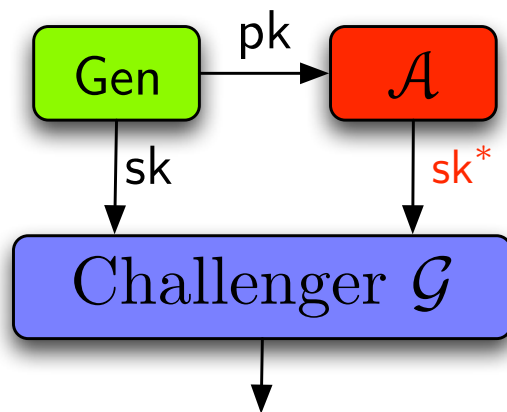


To get rid of unnecessary details

- ▷ We split the system into algorithms and treat them as black boxes.
- ▷ Functionality is guaranteed by specifying additional conditions.
- ▷ Security is defined through specifications of tolerable attack scenarios.

Naive security requirement

Goal: It should be infeasible to derive a secret key from accessible data.



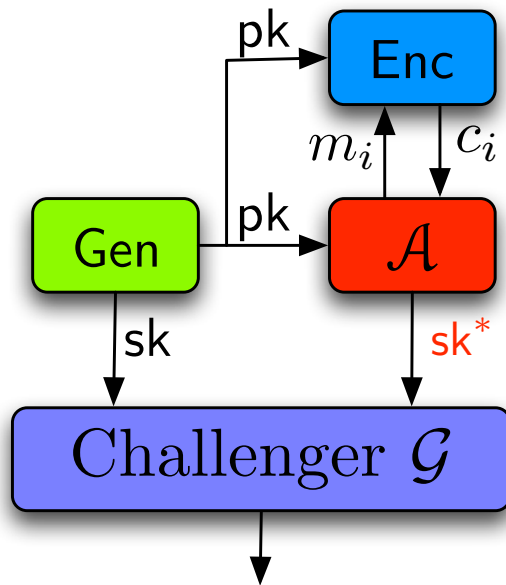
$$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} \left[\begin{array}{l} (sk, pk) \leftarrow \text{Gen} \\ sk^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(pk) \\ \text{return } [sk \stackrel{?}{=} sk^*] \end{array} \right]$$

The *advantage* of a *key only attack* is defined as an *average* success:

$$\text{Adv}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr [\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} = 1] \quad .$$

Caveat: The attack scenario does not capture the security goal in real life.

Seemingly more advanced attack scenario

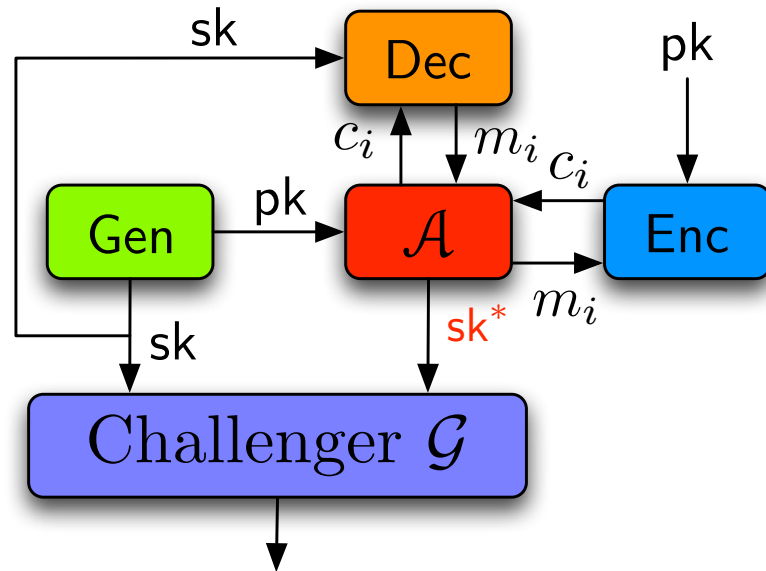


$$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} \left[\begin{array}{l} (sk, pk) \leftarrow \text{Gen} \\ sk^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot)}(pk) \\ \text{return } [sk \stackrel{?}{=} sk^*] \end{array} \right.$$

Caveat: The attack scenario is not more powerful than the previous.

- ▷ The adversary \mathcal{A} knows what is inside (Gen, Enc, Dec) blocks.
- ▷ As adversary knows pk , she can compute $\text{Enc}_{pk}(m)$ by herself.
- ▷ The oracle access to $\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot)$ function is redundant.

Classical chosen-ciphertext attack scenario



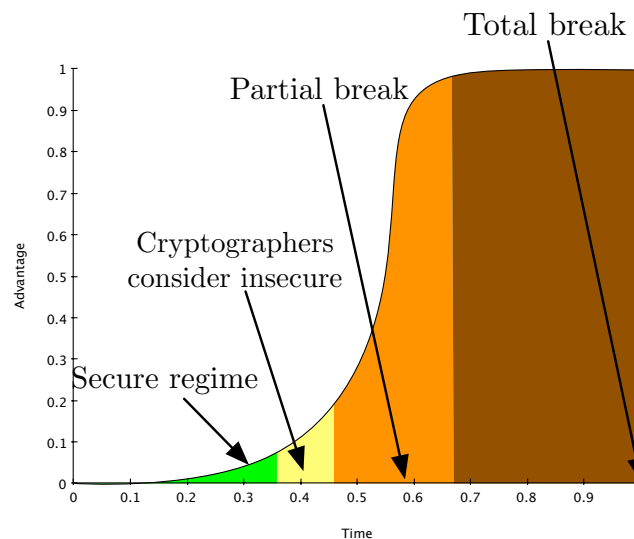
$$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} \left[\begin{array}{l} (sk, pk) \leftarrow \text{Gen} \\ sk^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot), \text{Dec}_{sk}(\cdot)}(pk) \\ \text{return } [sk \stackrel{?}{=} sk^*] \end{array} \right.$$

The difference: The attacker has an implicit access to secret key.

- ▷ Decryption operation can leak information about secret key.
- ▷ This can happen only for the messages not computed by $\text{Enc}_{pk}(\cdot)$.
- ▷ Such attacks are sometimes plausible in real life.

Time-success profiles

Fix the security game and the advantage function $\text{Adv}(\cdot)$. Then any concrete instantiation of a primitive can be broken with enough resources.



As a result, there exist a time-success profile $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(t)$, which captures the main security properties. Unfortunately, this profile cannot be computed nor approximated with our current knowledge.

Examples of Low-level Primitives

Discrete logarithm

- ▷ Let p be a prime such that $p = 2q + 1$ for another 2048-bit prime q .
- ▷ Fix a generator g such that $g^2 \neq 1$ and define $\mathbb{G} = \{g^i : 0 \leq i < q\}$.
- ▷ Then discrete logarithm defined below is considered intractable

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{G} : \log(y) = x \Leftrightarrow g^x \equiv y \pmod{p} .$$

Exercise. Abstract away all details under the assumptions:

- ▷ all construction based on it use only multiplication modulo p ,
- ▷ strings are mapped to \mathbb{G} and elements of \mathbb{G} are mapped to strings.

How to model the primitive if constructions also use addition modulo p ?

Discrete logarithm problem in an abstract group



Definition. Let $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ be a q -element multiplicative group generated by the element g . Then for any elements $y, z \in \mathbb{G}$ the discrete logarithm $\log_z y$ is defined as the smallest integer x such that $z^x = y$ and \perp if $y \notin \langle z \rangle$.

Advantage. Let $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{dl}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr [\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} = 1]$ be defined through the game

$$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}} \left[\begin{array}{l} x \xleftarrow{u} \mathbb{Z}_q \\ \mathbf{return} [x \stackrel{?}{=} \mathcal{A}(g, g^x)] \end{array} \right]$$

Discrete logarithm problem in an abstract group

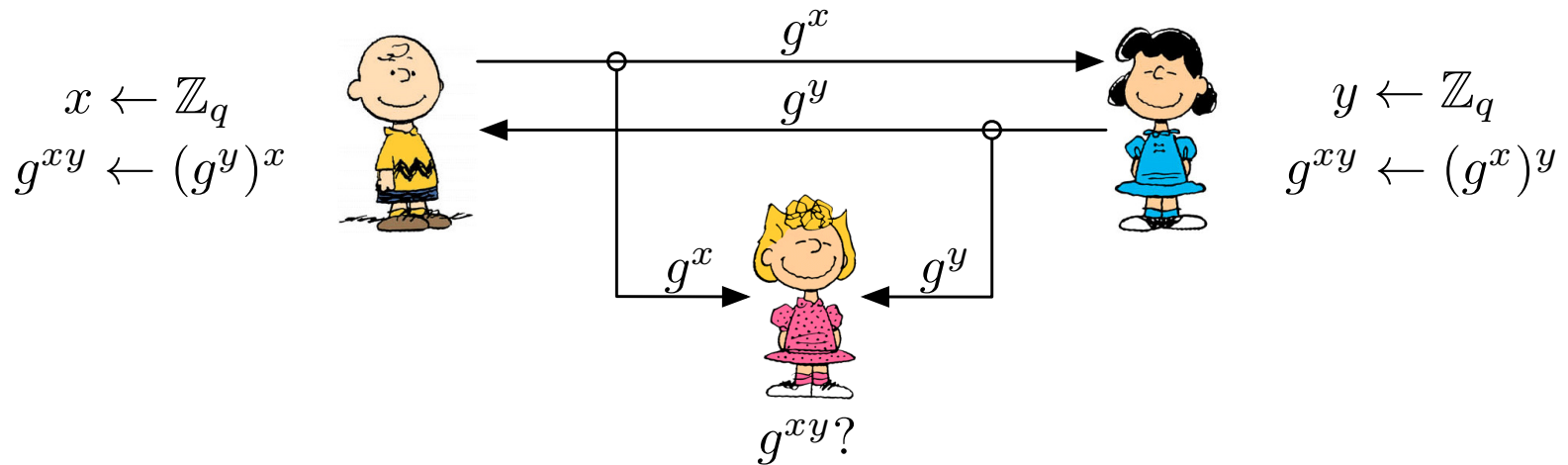
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Security. A group \mathbb{G} is (t, ε) -secure DL-group iff for any t -time adversary \mathcal{A} the corresponding advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{dl}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \varepsilon$.

Diffie-Hellman protocol



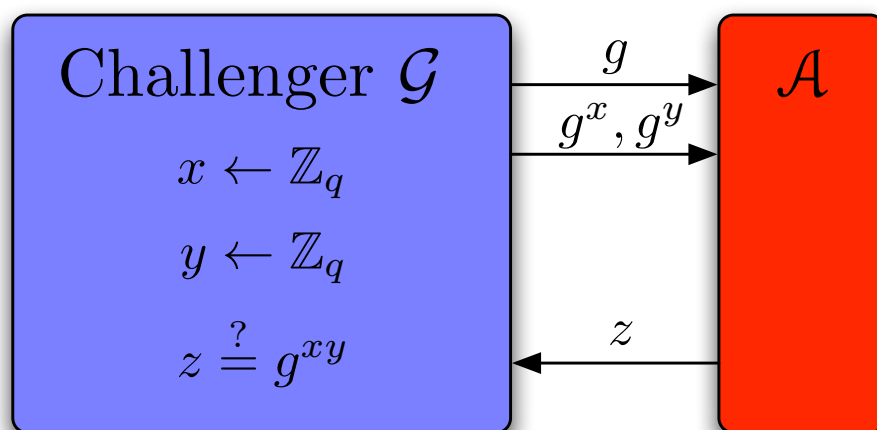
Exercise. Formalise the security requirements for Diffie-Hellman protocol.

1. Eavesdropper cannot reconstruct the common secret g^{xy} .
2. Eavesdropper learns nothing about the common secret g^{xy} .

How to convert the common secret g^{xy} to a valid secret key $sk \in \{0, 1\}^n$?

Computational Diffie-Hellman problem

Security. A group \mathbb{G} is (t, ε) -secure CDH-group iff for any t -time adversary \mathcal{A} the corresponding advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{cdh}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \varepsilon$ where the corresponding security game is defined as follows.

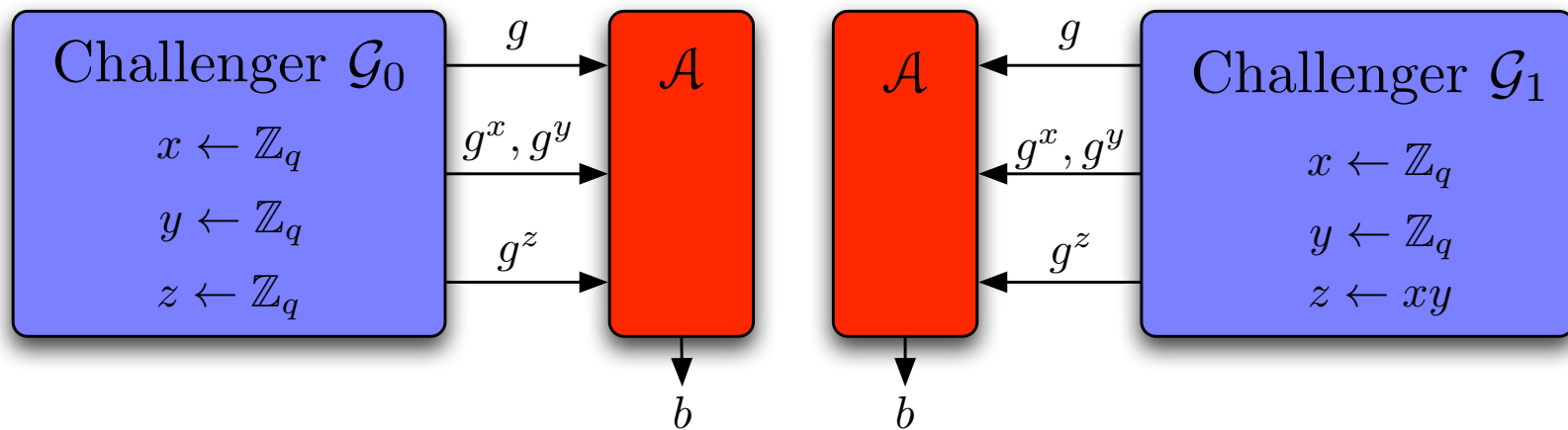


$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}}$

```
[ x ← ℤq
  y ← ℤq
  z ← A(g, gx, gy)
  return [gxy  $\stackrel{?}{=}$  z]
```

Decisional Diffie-Hellman

Security. A group \mathbb{G} is (t, ε) -secure DDH-group iff for any t -time adversary \mathcal{A} the corresponding advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{ddh}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \varepsilon$ where the corresponding security games \mathcal{G}_0 and \mathcal{G}_1 and the advantage are defined as follows.



$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{ddh}}(\mathcal{A}) = \left| \Pr [\mathcal{G}_0^{\mathcal{A}} = 1] - \Pr [\mathcal{G}_1^{\mathcal{A}} = 1] \right|$$

Factorisation

Factorisation of n -bit composite numbers is considered difficult

- ▷ Naive factorisation takes $\Theta(2^{\frac{n}{2}})$ division operations.
- ▷ Pollard ρ algorithm takes $O(2^{\frac{n}{4}})$ multiplication operations on average.
- ▷ Quadratic sieve takes $O(2^{c\sqrt{n}})$ multiplication operations on average.
- ▷ Number field sieve takes $O(2^{c\sqrt[3]{n}})$ multiplication operations on average.

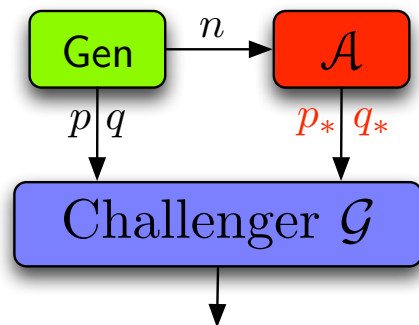
Current records

- ▷ Largest RSA challenge factored had 768 bits (2009).
- ▷ Largest number factored using quantum annealing is 4,088,459 (2018).
- ▷ Largest partially factored Mersenne number has 5,240,707 bits (2016).
- ▷ Approximate running-times are in thousands of computer years.
- ▷ Shor's algorithm failed to factor 35 on IBMQX5 quantum computer (2019).

Abstract distribution of RSA moduli

Definition. A *distribution of RSA moduli* \mathfrak{N} is defined by an efficient algorithm Gen that outputs n, p, q such that $n = pq$ and p, q are primes.

Security. A distribution \mathfrak{N} is (t, ε) -secure RSA-distribution iff for any t -time adversary \mathcal{A} the corresponding advantage $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{rsa}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \varepsilon$ where the security game is defined as follows



$\mathcal{G}^{\mathcal{A}}$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} (n, p, q) \leftarrow \text{Gen} \\ p_*, q_* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(n) \\ \text{return } [p \stackrel{?}{=} p_*] \vee [p \stackrel{?}{=} q_*] \end{array} \right.$$

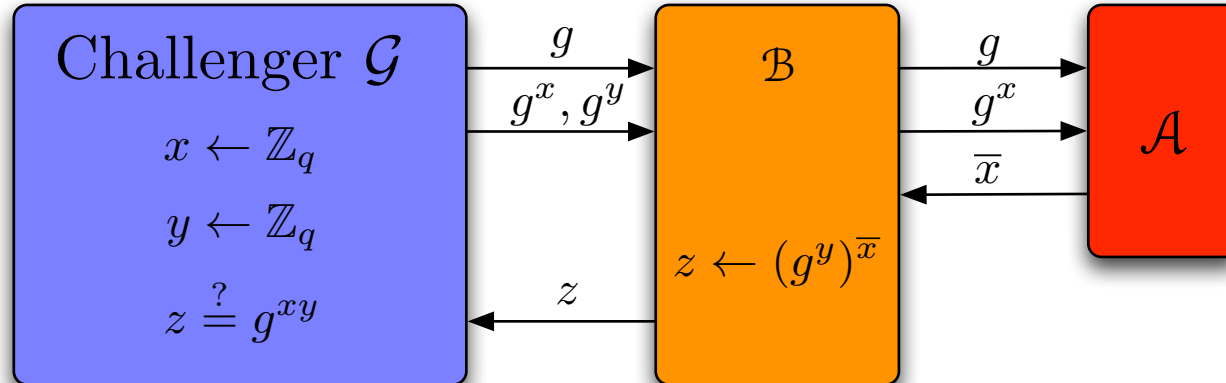
Example. Let \mathfrak{P} be an efficiently samplable set of primes. Then the distribution of products pq where $p \leftarrow \mathfrak{P}$ and $q \leftarrow \mathfrak{P}$ is RSA distribution.

Relations Between Problems

CDH group is also DH group

Intuition: If we can compute discrete logarithm then CDH is easy.

Reduction. Let \mathcal{A} be a DL-finder algorithm. Then the adversary \mathcal{B}



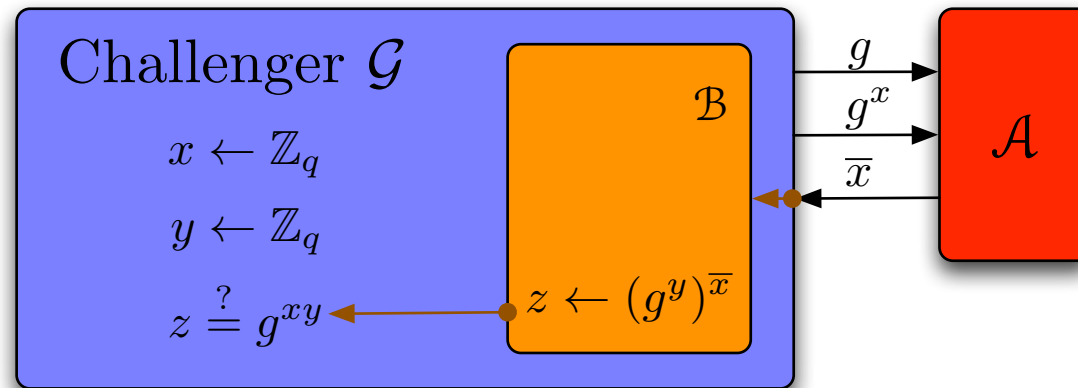
is as successful as the adversary \mathcal{A} :

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{cdh}}(\mathcal{B}) = \text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{dl}}(\mathcal{A}) .$$

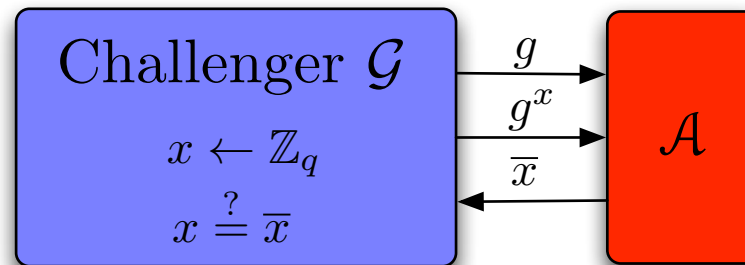
Hence (t, ε) -secure CDH group must be also (t, ε) -secure DL group.

Formal proof

The adversary \mathcal{A} sees the following chain of events

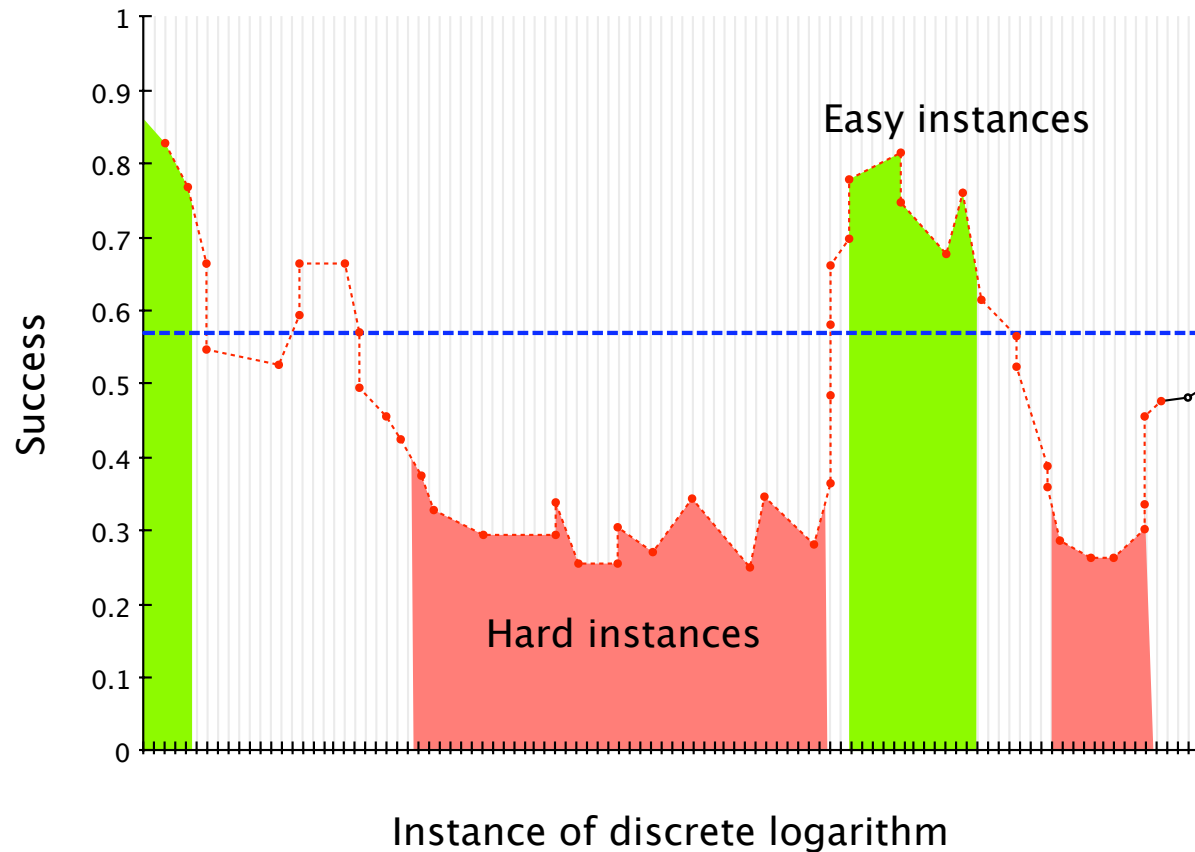


As $z = g^{xy} \Leftrightarrow xy = \bar{x}y \Leftrightarrow x = \bar{x}$ we can further simplify



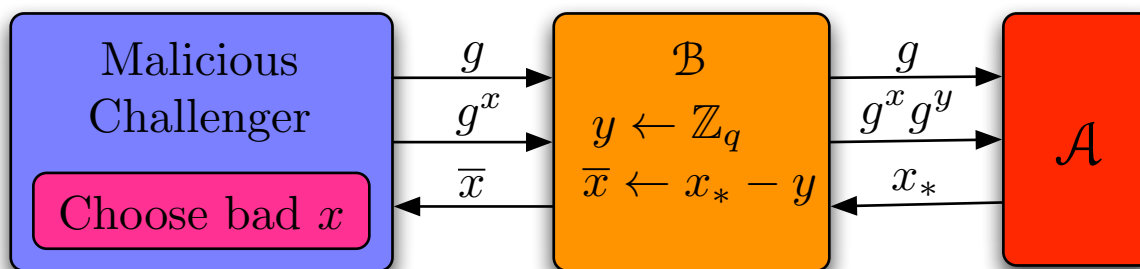
Simple and difficult puzzles

Intuition: A good algorithm *should* work uniformly well on each instance.

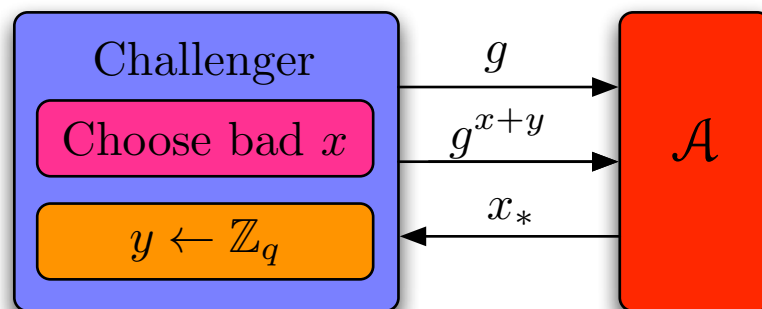


Random self-reducibility

Any instance of a discrete logarithm can be reduced to a random instance.



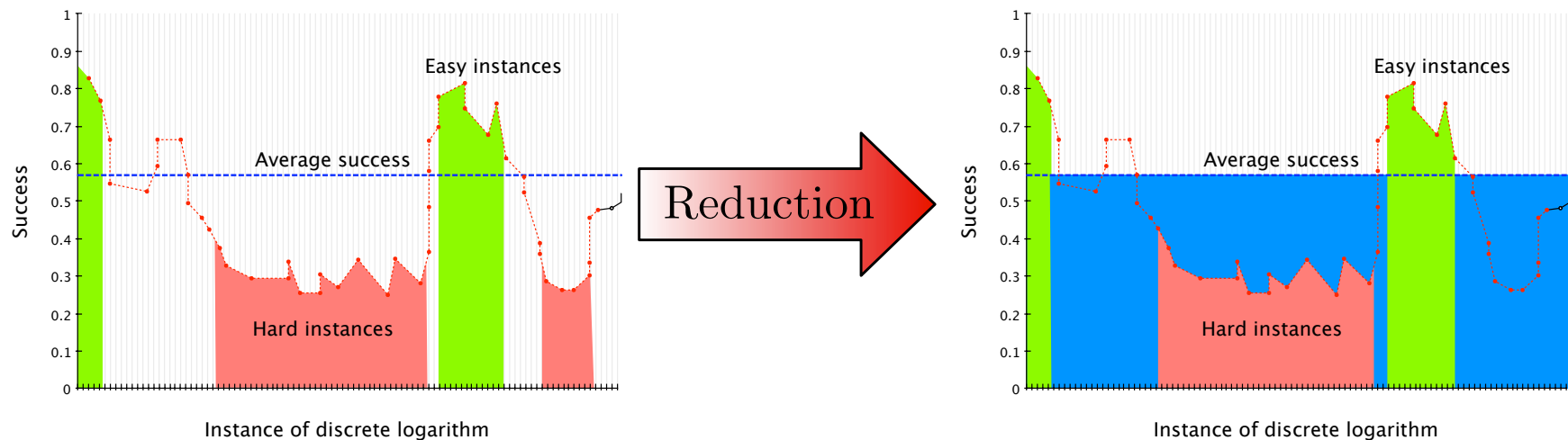
The adversary \mathcal{A} sees the following chain of events



and thus the worst case advantage $\Pr[x = \mathcal{B}(g^x)] = \text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{dl}}(\mathcal{A})$.

Consequences of random self-reducibility

Consequence: There are no hard instances but easy instances may exist.



- ▷ The average success is larger for hard instances.
- ▷ Easy instances are handled worse than by the original algorithm.
- ▷ Specialised algorithms for specific instance classes might work better.

Consequences of random self-reducibility

Consequence: There are various trade-offs between time and success.

- ▷ By repeating the DL-computations we can increase the success.
- ▷ Any estimate on parameters t, ε gives a lower bound to success.

