

Introduction to cryptology (GBIN8U16)



More on discrete-logarithm based schemes

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Signatures: what?

Objectives of a signature algorithm:

- ▶ Given (sk, pk) a key pair
- ▶ message m + secret key $sk \rightsquigarrow$ signature $s = \mathbf{S}_{sk}(m)$
- ▶ message m + signature s + public key $pk \rightsquigarrow$ verified message $\mathbf{V}_{pk}(m, s)$

Informal security objectives

- ▶ Given pk , it should be hard to find sk
- ▶ Given pk , it should be hard to forge signatures
- ▶ (Variant: given access to a signing oracle $\mathbf{O}_{(sk, pk)}$, it should be hard to forge signatures)

Related: interactive proof of identity

Objective of a proof of ID scheme:

- ▶ Publish public identification data α
- ▶ When challenged, prove knowledge of a secret related to α

Example of a one-time scheme:

- 1 Let \mathcal{H} be a preimage-resistant hash function, \mathcal{R} a large set
- 2 The prover draws $x \xleftarrow{s} \mathcal{R}$, computes and publishes $X = \mathcal{H}(x)$
- 3 When challenged, reveals x

Many-time variant:

- 1 Draw $x \xleftarrow{s} \mathcal{R}$, compute and publish $X = \mathcal{H}^N(x)$
- 2 When challenged, reveal $\mathcal{H}^{N-1}(x)$, reset $X = \mathcal{H}^{N-1}(x)$

A discrete-log based PoD scheme

From last week's TD (\sim Schnorr):

- 1 Let $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ be a group with a hard DLP
- 2 The prover draws $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{R}$, computes and publishes $X = g^x$
- 3 When challenged; draws r , sends $R = g^r$
- 4 The verifier picks c and sends it
- 5 The prover computes $a = r + cx$ and sends it
- 6 The verifier checks that $RX^c = g^a$

This can be run many times, BUT r 's should be random and never repeat!

From PoD to signature

Differences between PoD and signatures:

- ▶ PoDs are interactive (in the verification), signatures are not
- ▶ Signatures also involve a message

One major observation:

- ▶ If the prover can convince that it doesn't control *both* R and c , interaction is unnecessary
- ▶ (Otherwise, nothing is proved)

⇒ Fiat-Shamir transformation: generate c from R with a hash function

Schnorr signatures

To sign a message m with the key (sk, pk) pair $(x, X = g^x)$

- 1 Pick $r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{R}$ and compute $R = g^r$
- 2 Compute $c = \mathcal{H}(R, m)$
- 3 Compute $a = r + cx$ and output (c, a) as the signature of m

To verify a signature:

- 1 Compute $\hat{R} = g^a / X^c = g^a / g^{cx}$
- 2 Check that $c = \mathcal{H}(\hat{R}, m)$

Important: r must (again) be random and not repeat! (Why?)

Remember randomness (always)!

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
              // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

Figure: Not good for Schnorr signatures

Where are we with dlog?

If $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ is a prime-order group where the DLP is hard (on average \equiv in the worst case (cf. TD)), then:

- ▶ Can do asymmetric key exchange
- ▶ Can do public-key signatures

For signatures we also need

- ▶ Good hash functions
- ▶ Good pseudorandom number generation

Some comments on dlog attacks

When $\mathbb{G} \approx \mathbb{F}_p^*$, the current dlog records are:

- ▶ $|p| \approx 768$ bits (Kleinjung et al., 2017), using a *Number Field Sieve* (NFS) algorithm
 - ▶ Took about 5300 core years
- ▶ $|p| \approx 1024$ bits for a *trapdoored* prime (Fried et al., 2017), using a *Special NFS* (SNFS) algorithm
 - ▶ Took about 385 core years

Note: it may be hard to decide if a prime is trapdoored

One nice (for an attacker) feature of (S)NFS:

- ▶ The largest part of the cost is a *precomputation*, then computing *individual dlogs* is *very fast*

Some more comments on dlog: small subgroup attack

Consider a *semi-static* key exchange,

- ▶ Where one of g^a or g^b (say g^b) is fixed

using $\langle g \rangle \subset \mathbb{F}_p^*$ where \mathbb{F}_p^* has many small subgroups

- ▶ Then B must check that “ \hat{g} ” sent by A is in the correct group
- ▶ Otherwise, if \hat{g}^b is in a small group of order N , a malicious A can learn $b \bmod N$
- ▶ ... Then $b \bmod N'$, etc.

One way to easily prevent this: use $p = 2q + 1$, q a Sophie Germain prime

⇒ Only a small subgroup of order 2 to check for in \mathbb{F}_p^*

What about implementation, though?

- ▶ We need to compute g^x , for a large x (e.g. 256 bits)
- ▶ Cannot just do $g \times g \times g \times \dots \times g \approx 2^{256}$ times!
- ▶ Notice that $g \times g = g^2$, $g^2 \times g^2 = g^4$, $g^4 \times g^4 = g^{16}$, etc.
- ▶ Also: $g \times g^2 = g^3$, $g^2 \times g^{16} = g^{18}$, etc.

~> “Square & multiply” algorithm

Square & multiply

Square & multiply

Input x, g

Output g^x

- 1 $h = 1$
- 2 While $x \neq 0$
- 3 if ($x \& 1$)
- 4 $h \leftarrow h \times g$
- 5 $g \leftarrow g \times g$
- 6 $x \leftarrow x \gg 1$
- 7 Return h

\Rightarrow Only $\log(x)$ iterations needed!
(Problem here, runtime also depends on $\text{wt}(x)$)

Implementation: what else?

- ▶ We also need multiplication, addition in \mathbb{G}
- ▶ If $\mathbb{G} \subseteq \mathbb{F}_p^* \Rightarrow$ modular arithmetic
- ▶ Require big number multiplication, (integer) division, remainders, addition
- ▶ \Rightarrow split f as e.g. $f_0 + 2^{64}f_1 + 2^{128}f_2 + \dots$
- ▶ Can use dedicated arithmetic for “efficient” primes

Implementation digression

Consider $p = 2^{111} - 37$, then

- ▶ $2^{111} \equiv 37 \pmod{p}$
- ▶ $a \times 2^{111} \equiv a \times 37 \pmod{p}$
- ▶ $a \times 2^{112} \equiv a \times 74 \pmod{p}$
- ▶ $a \times 2^{28} \times b \times 2^{84} \equiv ab \times 74 \pmod{p}$
- ▶ $a \times 2^{56} \times b \times 2^{56} \equiv ab \times 74 \pmod{p}$
- ▶ etc.

Multiplication mod $2^{111} - 37$

Let $f = f_0 + 2^{28}f_1 + 2^{56}f_2 + 2^{84}f_3$, $g = g_0 + 2^{28}g_1 + 2^{56}g_2 + 2^{84}g_3$, set

- ▶ $h_0 = f_0g_0 + 74f_1g_3 + 74f_2g_2 + 74f_3g_1$
- ▶ $h_1 = f_0g_1 + f_1g_0 + 74f_2g_3 + 74f_3g_2$
- ▶ $h_2 = f_0g_2 + f_1g_1 + f_2g_0 + 74f_3g_3$
- ▶ $h_3 = f_0g_3 + f_1g_2 + f_2g_1 + f_3g_0$

Then $fg \bmod 2^{111} - 37 = h_0 + 2^{28}h_1 + 2^{56}h_2 + 2^{84}h_3 \bmod 2^{111} - 37$

To be complete:

- ▶ Have to reduce the h_i 's mod 2^{28} (2^{27})
- ▶ Have to ensure that all $f_i g_j$ can be computed with, say, a $64 \times 64 \rightarrow 64$ multiplier (in fact, desktop CPUs have $64 \times 64 \rightarrow 128$ multipliers)

⇒ Modular multiplication w/o explicit division

What next?

In two weeks:

- ▶ Inversion in integer rings: extended Euclid algorithm
- ▶ The Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT)
- ▶ How to do asymmetric key exchange, public key signatures differently: RSA