

MTAT.07.003 CRYPTOLOGY II

# **How to Model Cryptographic Primitives and Protocols**

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# Abstraction is a key to success

- ▷ **Cryptographic constructions are complex**
  - ◇ Irrelevant technical 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  $e \xleftarrow{u} \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$  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

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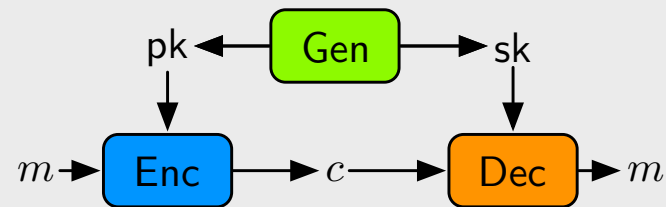
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## Public Key Cryptosystem



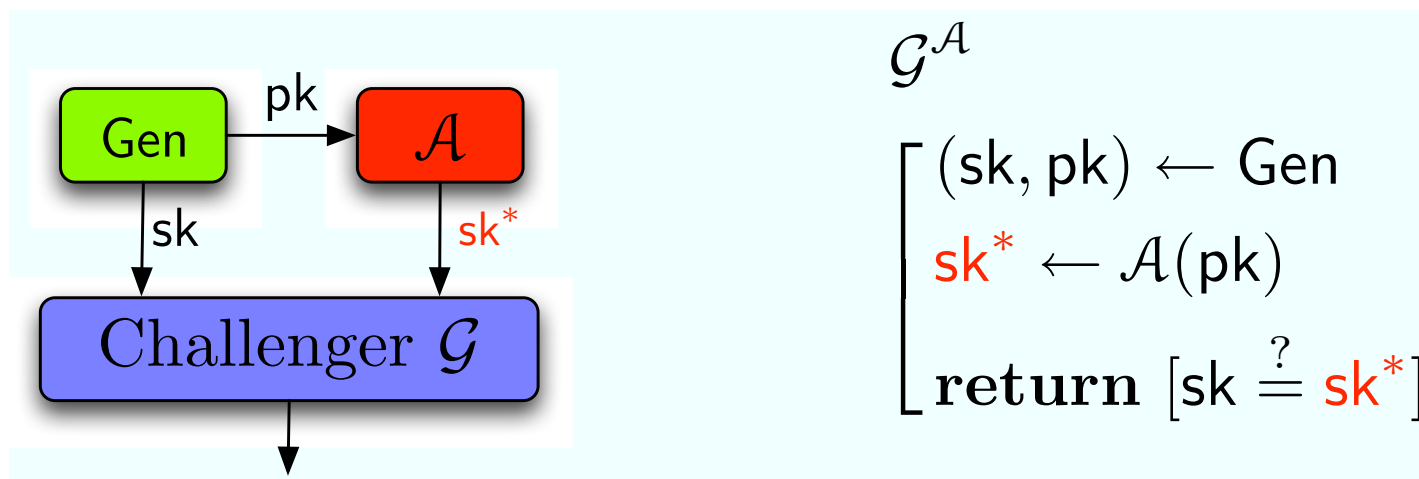
$$\forall (\text{sk}, \text{pk}) \leftarrow \text{Gen} : \text{Dec}_{\text{sk}}(\text{Enc}_{\text{pk}}(m)) \equiv m$$

## 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.

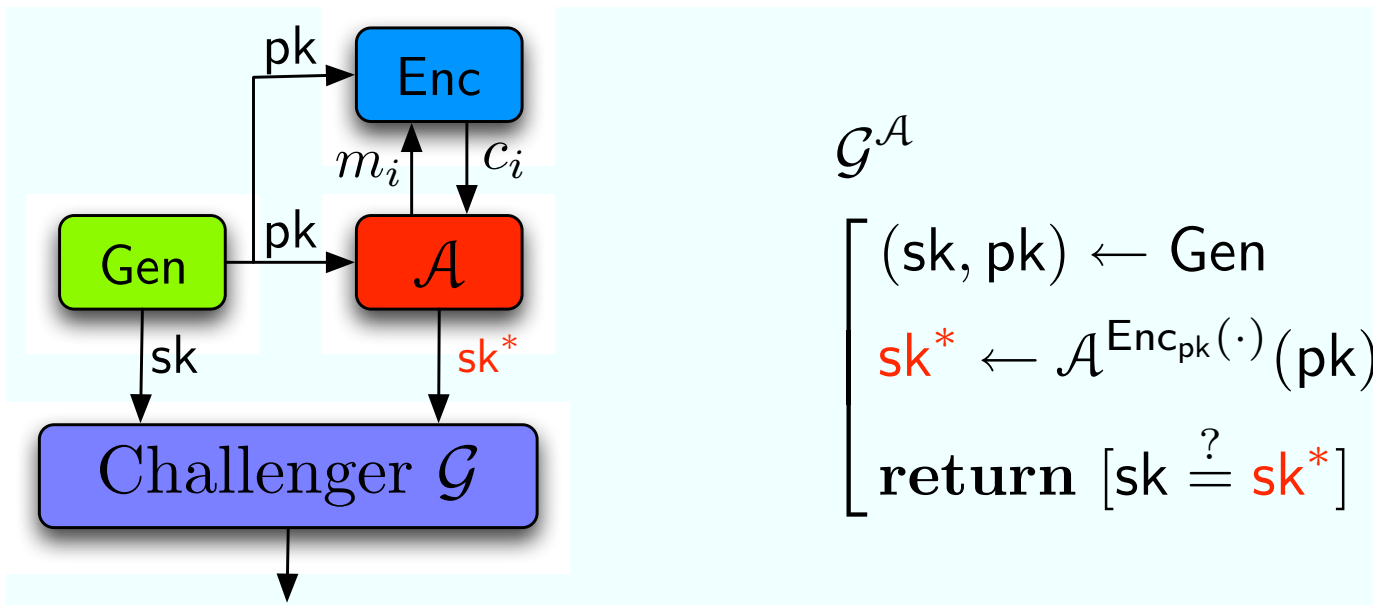


The *advantage* of a *key only attack* is defined as an *average* success:

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

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

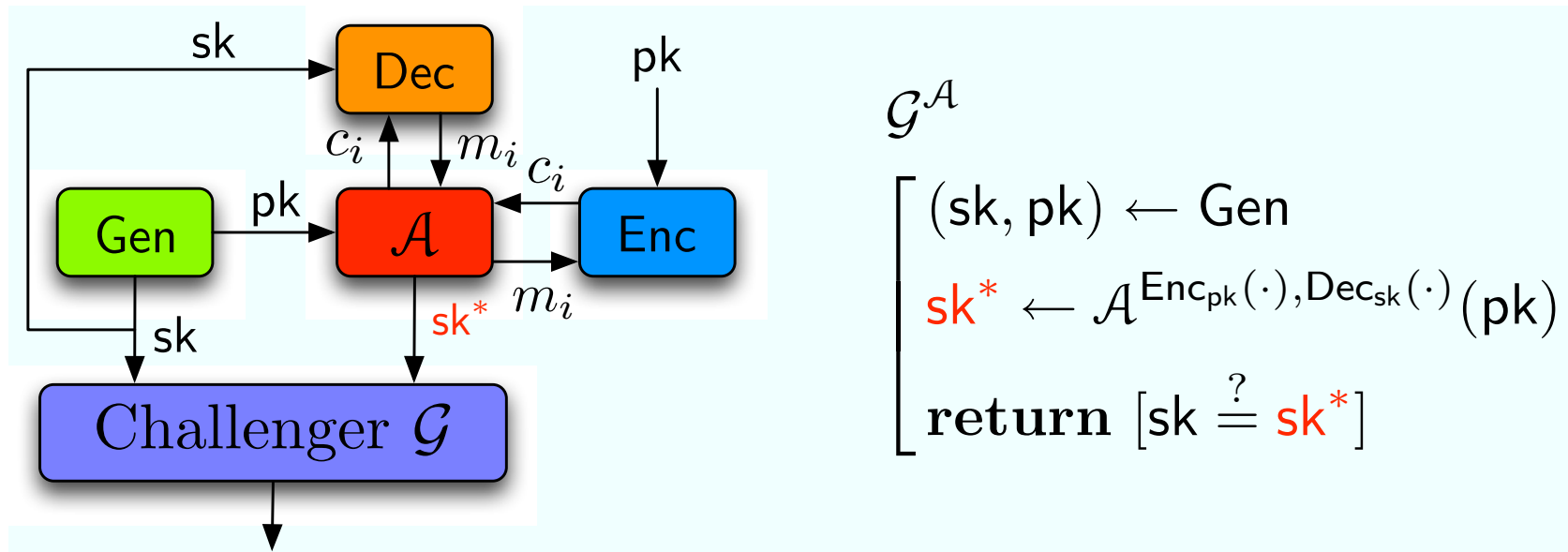
## Seemingly more advanced attack scenario



**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



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

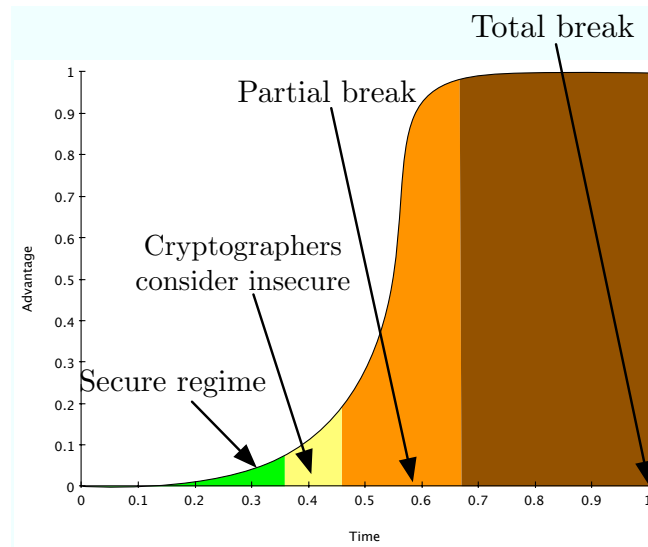
**The difference:** The attacker has an implicit access to secret key.

- ▷ 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

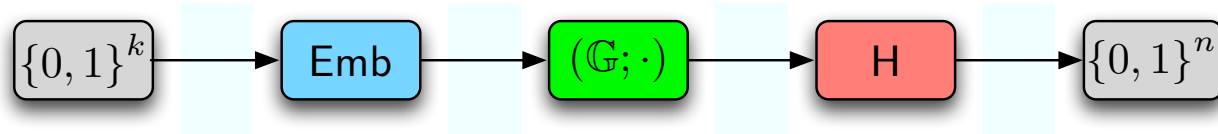
$$\forall y \in \mathbb{G} : \log(y) = x \Leftrightarrow g^x \equiv y \pmod{p} .$$

**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

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

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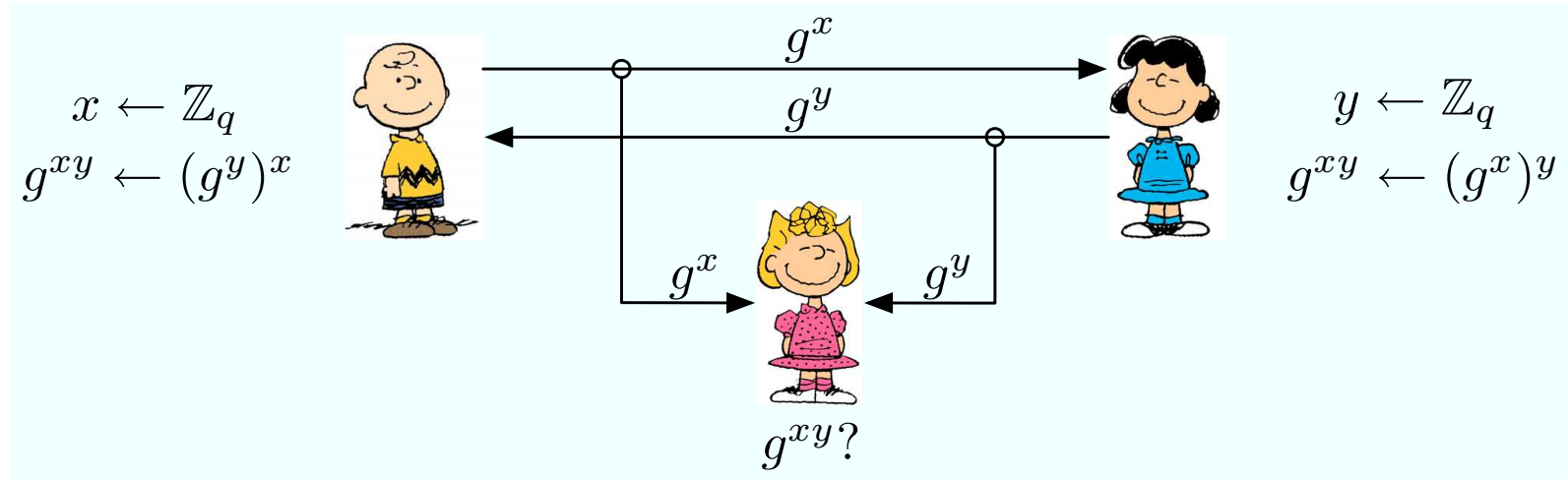
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**Security.** A group  $\mathbb{G}$  is  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -secure DL-group iff for any  $t$ -time adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  the corresponding advantage  $\text{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\text{dl}}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \varepsilon$ .

# Diffie-Hellman protocol



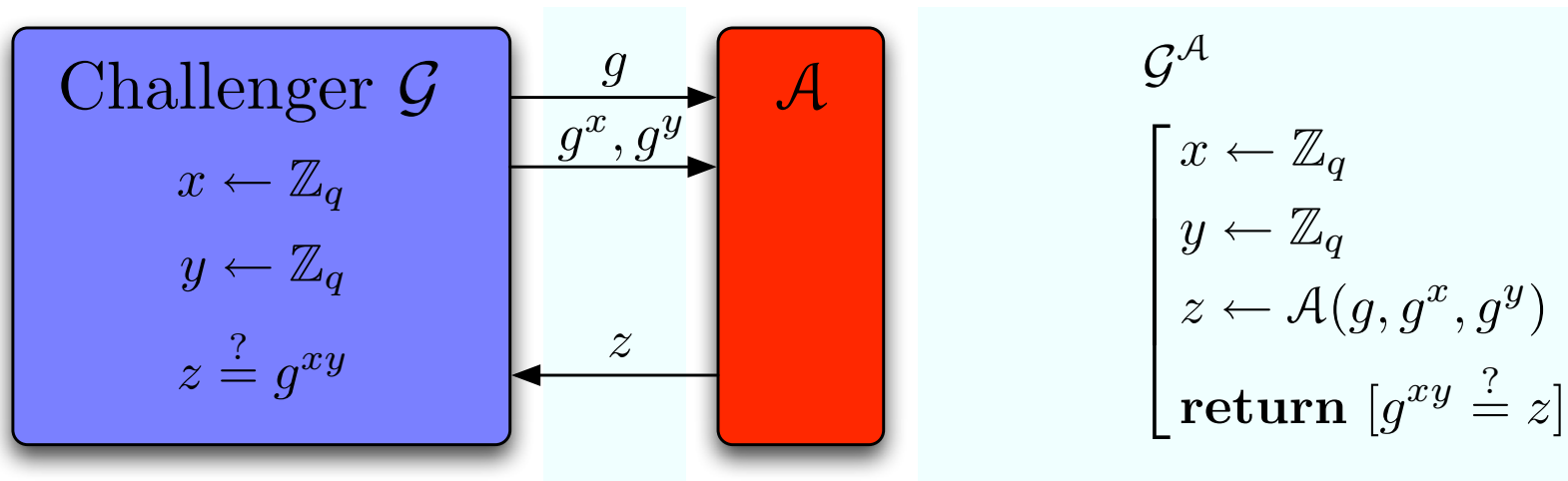
**Exercise.** Formalise the security requirements for Diffie-Hellman protocol.

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  $sk \in \{0, 1\}^n$ ?

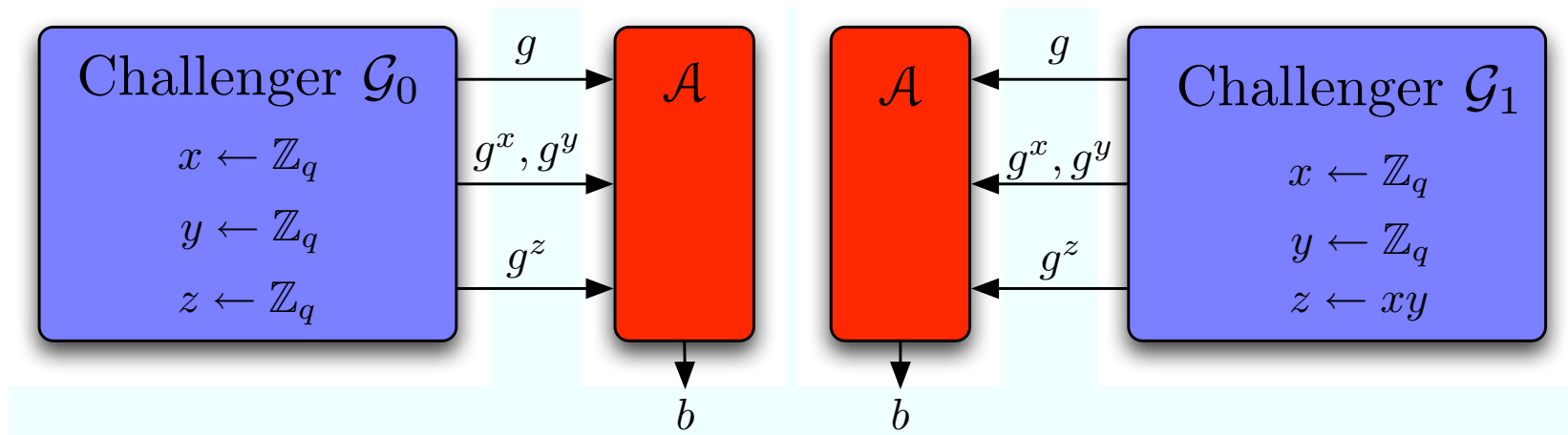
# Computational Diffie-Hellman problem

**Security.** A group  $\mathbb{G}$  is  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -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.



## Decisional Diffie-Hellman

**Security.** A group  $\mathbb{G}$  is  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -secure CDH-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  $\rho$  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.

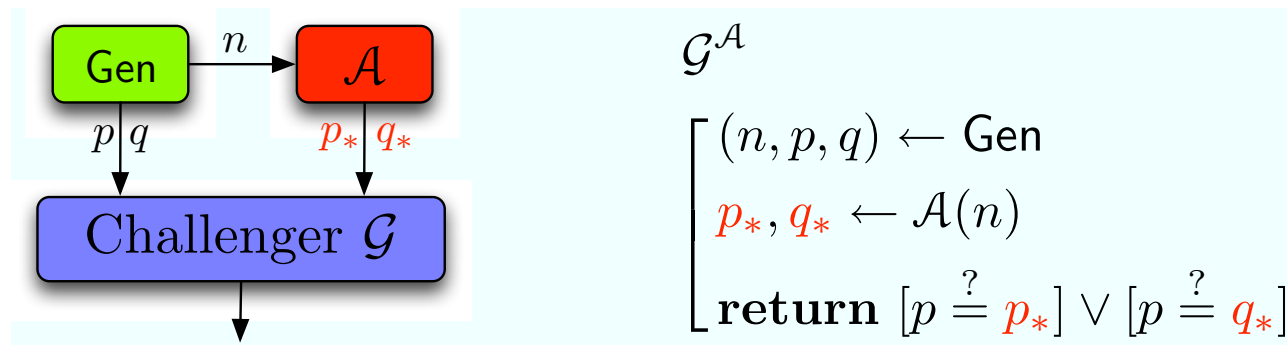
## Current records

- ▷ Largest RSA challenge factored had 768 bits.
- ▷ Largest Mersenne number factored has 1024 bits.
- ▷ Approximate running-times are in thousands of computer years.

## 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  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -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



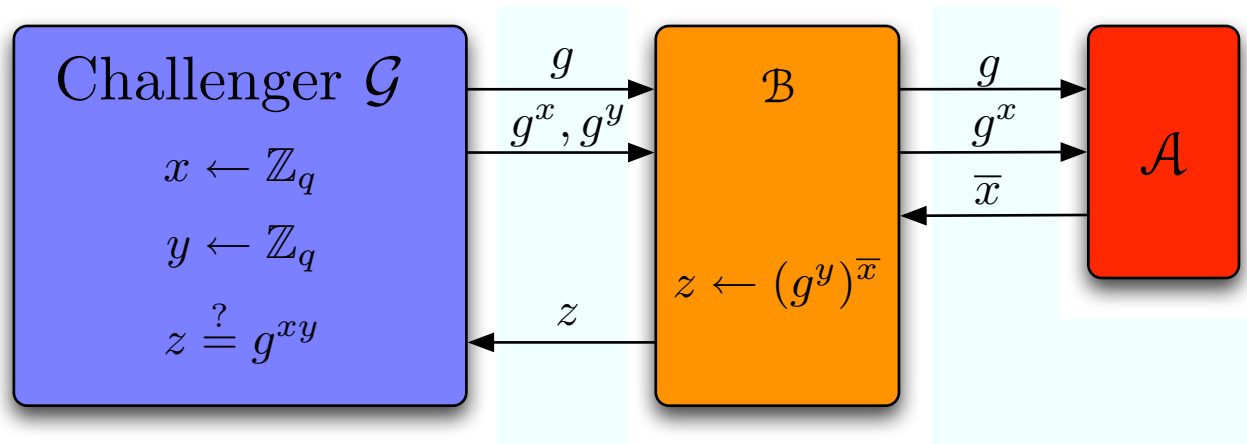
**Example.** Let  $\mathfrak{P}$  be an efficiently samplable set of primes. Then the distribution of products  $pq$  where  $p \leftarrow \mathfrak{P}$  and  $q \leftarrow \mathfrak{P}$  is RSA distribution.

# 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  $\mathcal{B}$



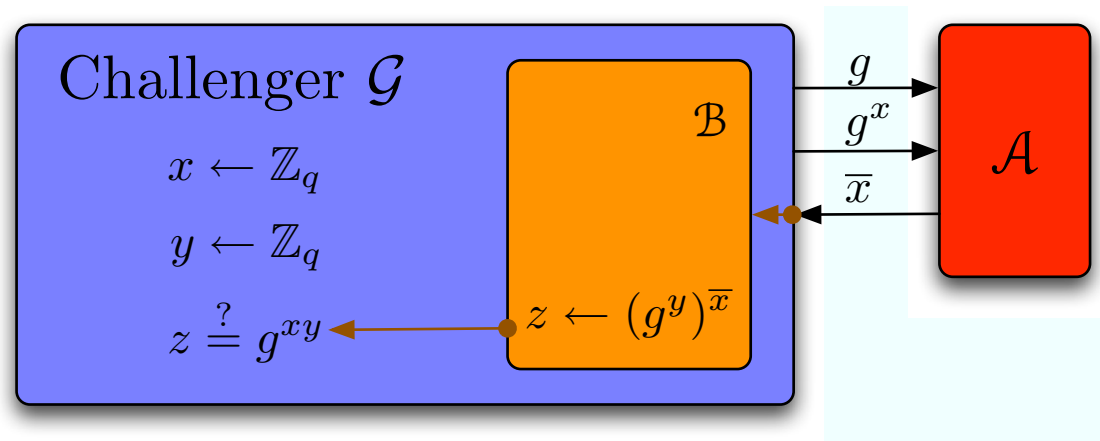
is as successful as the adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ :

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

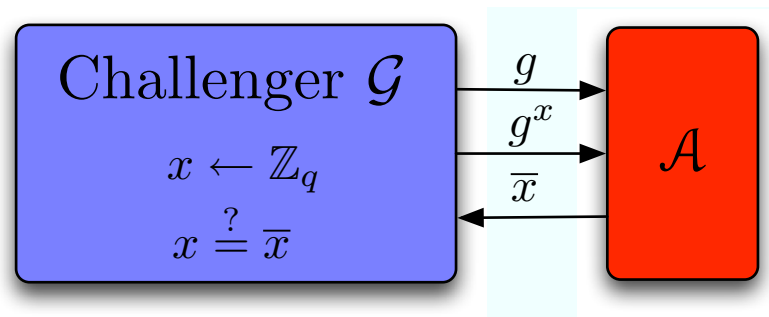
Hence  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -secure CDH group must be also  $(t, \varepsilon)$ -secure DL group.

## Formal proof

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

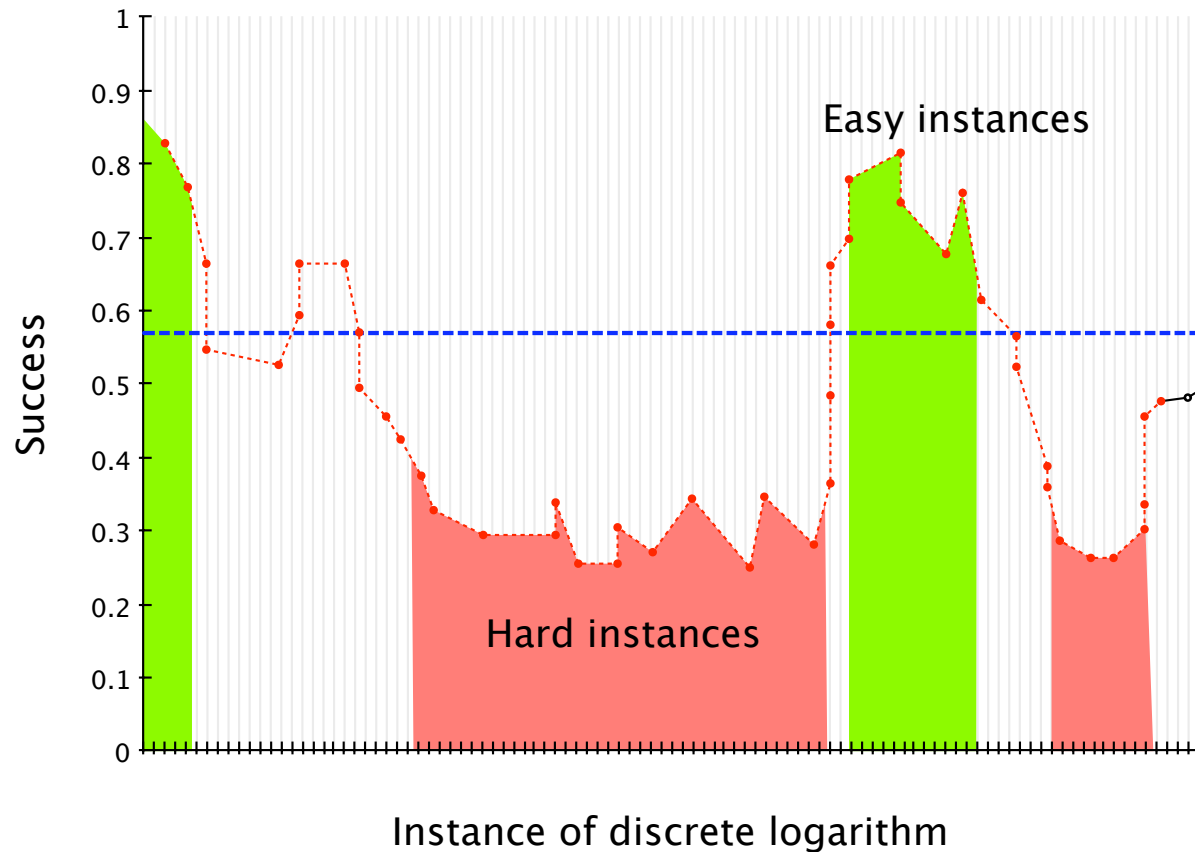


As  $z = g^{xy} \Leftrightarrow xy = \bar{x}y \Leftrightarrow x = \bar{x}$  we can further simplify



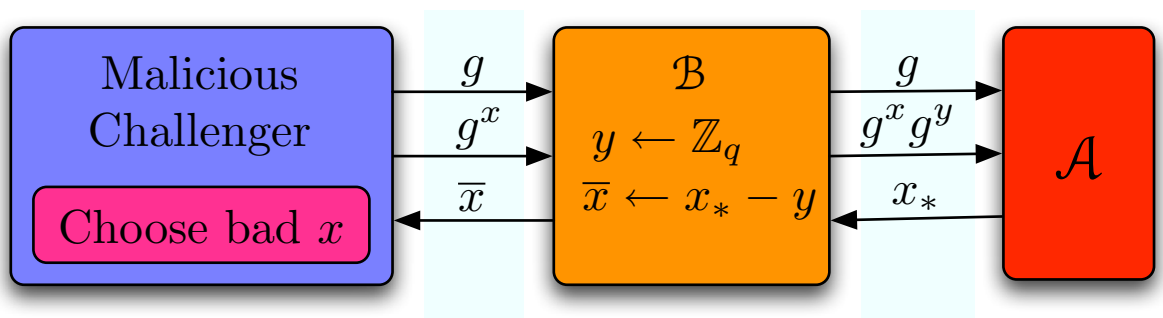
## Simple and difficult puzzles

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

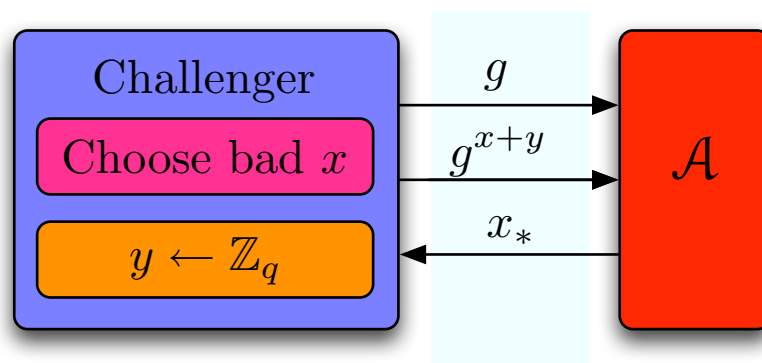


## Random self-reducibility

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



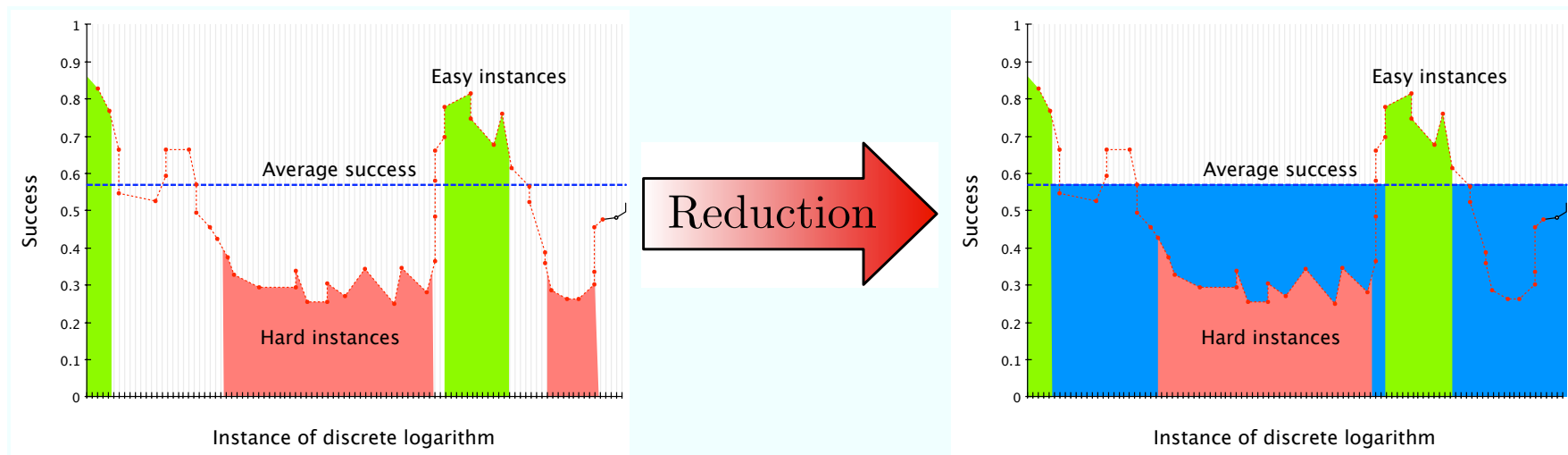
The adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  sees the following chain of events



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  $t, \varepsilon$  gives a lower bound to success.

