

# Modern Cryptography: Lecture 10

## *The Public Key Revolution II/II*

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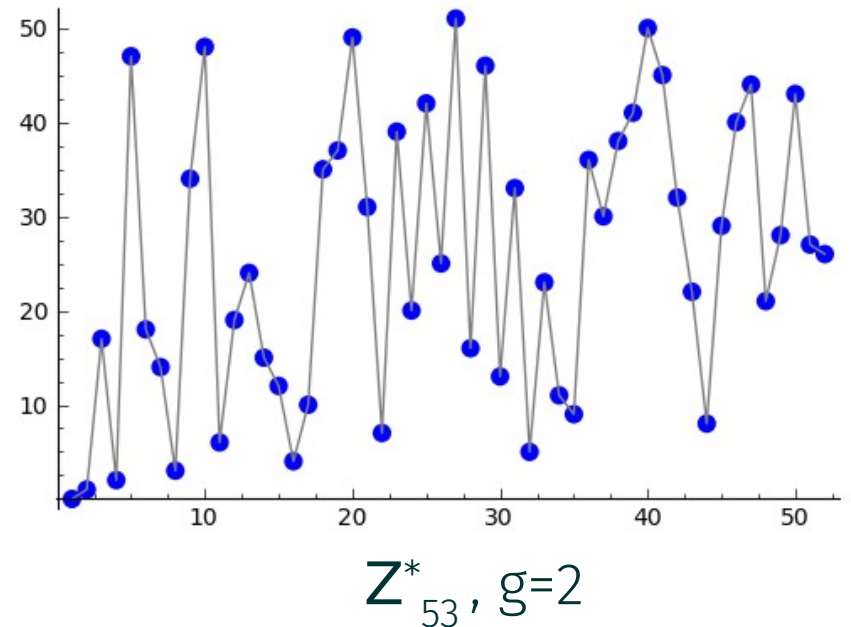
*Daniel Slamanig*

# Organizational

- Where to find the slides and homework?
  - <https://danielslamanig.info/ModernCrypto19>
- How to contact me?
  - [daniel.slamanig@ait.ac.at](mailto:daniel.slamanig@ait.ac.at)
- Tutors: Guillermo Perez, Karen Klein
  - [guillermo.pascualperez@ist.ac.at](mailto:guillermo.pascualperez@ist.ac.at); [karen.klein@ist.ac.at](mailto:karen.klein@ist.ac.at)
- Official page at TU, Location etc.
  - <https://tiss.tuwien.ac.at/course/courseDetails.xhtml?dswid=3463&dsrid=417&courseNr=192062&semester=2019W>
- Tutorial, TU site
  - <https://tiss.tuwien.ac.at/course/courseDetails.xhtml?dswid=3593&dsrid=246&courseNr=192063>
- Exam for the second part: Thursday 30.01.2020 15:00-17:00 (Tutorial slot)

# Discrete Logarithms

- We consider a cyclic group  $G$  of order  $q$  with generator  $g$ , so  $G = \{g^0, \dots, g^{q-1}\}$
- The **DL problem**: given  $h=g^x$  to find the unique  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_q$
- Let  $\mathbf{G}$  be a group generator that on input  $1^n$  outputs a description of a cyclic group  $(G, q, g)$  with  $\|q\|=n$  (binary length)

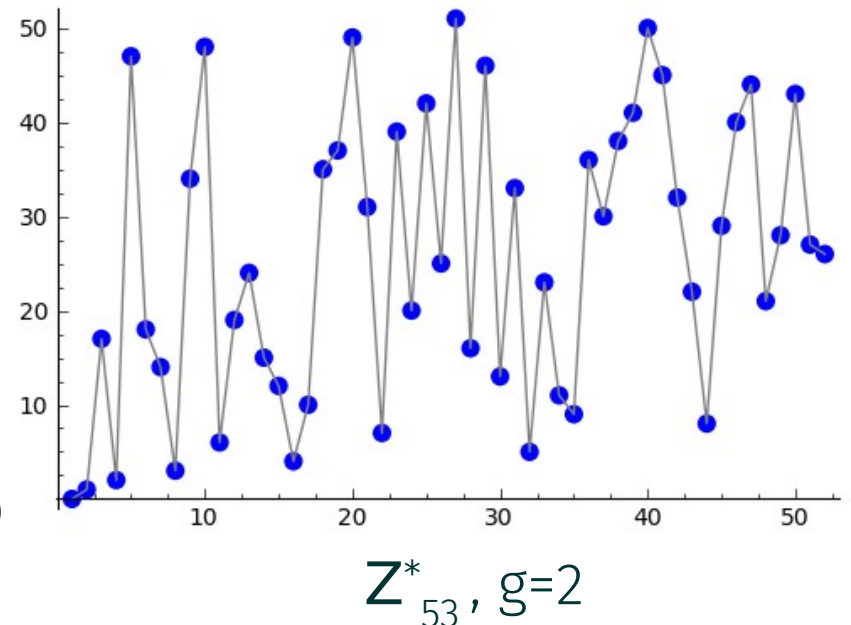


The discrete-logarithm experiment  $DLog_{A,G}(n)$ :

1. Run  $\mathbf{G}(1^n)$  to obtain  $(G, q, g)$ , where  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $q$  (with  $\|q\| = n$ ), and  $g$  is a generator of  $G$ .
2. Choose a uniform  $h \in G$ .
3.  $\mathbf{A}$  is given  $G, q, g, h$ , and outputs  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_q$ .
4. The output of the experiment is defined to be 1 if  $g^x = h$ , and 0 otherwise.

# Discrete Logarithms

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The discrete-logarithm experiment  $\text{DLog}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{G}}(n)$ :

1. Run  $\mathbf{G}(1^n)$  to obtain  $(G, q, g)$ , where  $G$  is a cyclic group of order  $q$  (with  $\|q\| = n$ ), and  $g$  is a generator of  $G$ .
2. Choose a uniform  $h \in G$ .

**DEFINITION 8.62** We say that the discrete-logarithm problem is hard relative to  $\mathbf{G}$  if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathbf{A}$  there exists a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr[\text{DLog}_{\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{G}}(n) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n).$$

# Problems Related to the DLOG Problem

- We will now take a look at two problems related but weaker than the DLP; the computational (CDH) and the decisional Diffie–Hellman (DDH) problem
- Let  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2) := g^{\log_g h_1 \cdot \log_g h_2}$ 
  - If  $h_1 = g^{x_1}$  and  $h_2 = g^{x_2}$ , then  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2) = g^{x_1 x_2} = h_1^{x_2} = h_2^{x_1}$
- CDH Problem
  - Given  $(G, q, g, h_1, h_2)$  compute  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2)$

DEFINITION: We say that the CDH problem is hard relative to  $G$  if for all PPT algorithms  $A$  there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr[A(G, q, g, g^x, g^y) = g^{xy}] \leq \text{negl}(n),$$

where the probabilities are taken over the experiment in which  $G(1^n)$  outputs  $(G, q, g)$ , and then uniform  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  are chosen.

# Problems Related to the DLOG Problem

- **DDH Problem**

- Given  $(G, q, g)$  and uniform random  $h_1, h_2 \in G$ , distinguish  $\text{DH}_g(h_1, h_2)$  from uniformly random  $h' \in G$

DEFINITION 8.63: We say that the DDH problem is hard relative to  $\mathbf{G}$  if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathbf{A}$  there is a negligible function  $\text{negl}$  such that

$$\Pr[\mathbf{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] - \Pr[\mathbf{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n),$$

where in each case the probabilities are taken over the experiment in which  $\mathbf{G}(1^n)$  outputs  $(G, q, g)$ , and then uniform  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  are chosen.

Clearly, if we can solve DL, then we can solve DDH and CDH

DDH is a stronger assumption than CDH

There are groups where the CDH is assumed hard, but the DDH is easy

# Algorithms for Computing Discrete Logarithms

- Two types of algorithms
  - Generic ones: apply to arbitrary groups
  - Specific ones: tailored to work for some specific class of groups

## Generic for groups of order $q$ :

- Baby step/giant step (Shanks)\*:  $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \text{polylog}(q))$  time and  $O(\sqrt{q})$  space
- Pollard's rho\*:  $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \text{polylog}(q))$  time and constant space

## Generic for groups of order $q$ (if factorization is known/easy to compute):

- Pohlig-Hellman: Reduces to finding DL in group of order  $q'$  with  $q'$  the largest prime dividing  $q$  (use then any algorithm to solve the DL)

## Specific algorithm for $Z_p^*$ :

- Index Calculus/Number Field Sieve: Subexponential with runtime  $2^{O((\log p)^{1/3} \cdot (\log \log p)^{2/3})}$

\* time complexity optimal for generic algorithms

# The Baby-Step/Giant-Step Algorithm I/II

- Want to solve DL problem for some  $h=g^x$  in  $(G, q, g)$
- We know that  $h$  must lie somewhere in the cycle  $\{g^0, \dots, g^{q-1}\}$ 
  - Computing all elements would take  $\Omega(q)$  time!
- Take some elements of the cycle at steps  $t=\lfloor\sqrt{q}\rfloor$  (the “giant steps”)
  - Gives us a list  $(g^0, g^t, g^{2t}, \dots, g^{\lfloor q/t \rfloor \cdot t})$  with gaps of at most  $t$  elements
  - We know  $h$  lies in one of the gaps
  - Compute a list  $(h \cdot g^1, \dots, h \cdot g^t)$  of shifts of  $h$  (the “baby steps”)
  - One of the points in the “baby list” will be equal to one in the “giant list”, i.e.,  $h \cdot g^i = g^{k \cdot t}$  for some  $i$  and  $k$
  - And determine  $x = (kt - i) \bmod q$

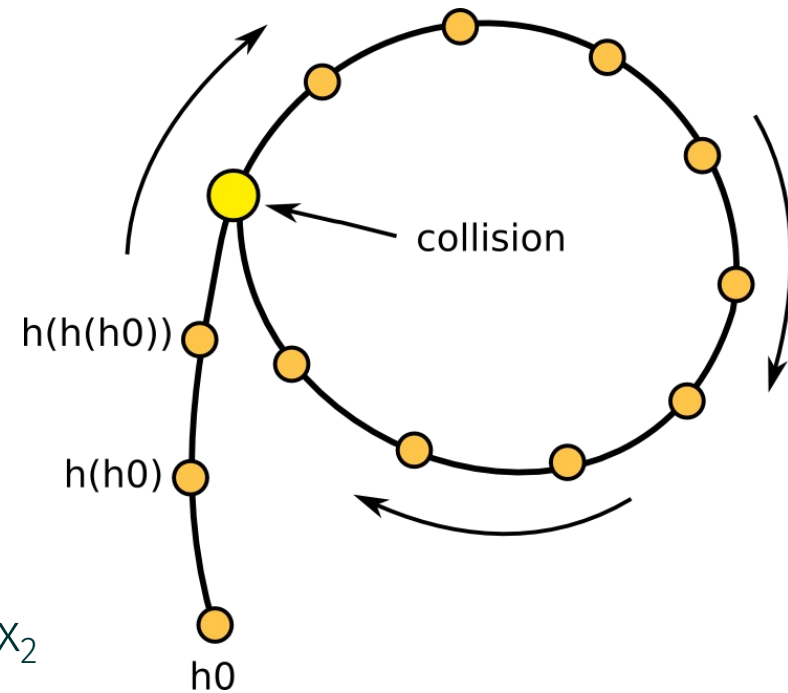


# The Baby-Step/Giant-Step Algorithm II/II

- Complexity
  - $O(\sqrt{q})$  exponentiations/multiplications
  - Sorting the “giant list” takes  $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \log q)$
  - Binary search for each element from “baby list” in  $O(\log q)$
  - Overall  $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \text{polylog}(q))$  time but need to store  $O(\sqrt{q})$  elements
  
- Can we do better generically?

# The Pollard Rho Algorithm\*

- Idea: Let  $H_{g,h}: \mathbf{Z}_q \times \mathbf{Z}_q \rightarrow G$  be defined by  $H_{g,h}(x_1, x_2) = g^{x_1} \cdot h^{x_2}$
- The birthday bound says we find a collision in  $H_{g,h}$  in time  $\mathbf{O}(\sqrt{q})$
- Is possible with constant memory (see §5.4.2)
- If  $H_{g,h}(x_1, x_2) = H_{g,h}(x_1', x_2')$  with  $x_1' \neq x_1$  and  $x_2' \neq x_2$  then solve  $\gamma(x_2 - x_2') = (x_1' - x_1) \pmod q$  for  $\gamma$
- Some issues not yet considered
  - Range of hash function must be subset of its domain: Use a standard cryptographic hash function  $F: G \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_q \times \mathbf{Z}_q$  to obtain the input for  $G$



\* we use the description from the book for consistency

# Choice of Discrete Logarithm Hard Groups

- Generic vs. special algorithms
  - If only generic algorithms are available parameters can be chosen much smaller; Yields more efficient group operations
- Prime order vs. composite order groups
  - Prime order: Discrete logarithm problem is hardest in prime order groups and finding generators is trivial
  - Composite order: Need to have subgroup of sufficient size (recall: largest prime dividing the order; may need to consider specific algorithms). Finding generators is more cumbersome.
- Prime order groups are preferable (there are some more reasons why discussed later)

# Choice of Discrete Logarithm Hard Groups

- Groups that are of interest
  - $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  (does not have prime order)
  - Prime order  $q$  subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
  - Elliptic curve groups

What about  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  with addition?

| Effective<br>Key Length | RSA            | Discrete Logarithm                         |                                   |
|-------------------------|----------------|--|-----------------------------------|
|                         | Modulus Length | Order- $q$<br>Subgroup of $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ | Elliptic-Curve<br>Group Order $q$ |
| 112                     | 2048           | $p: 2048, q: 224$                          | 224                               |
| 128                     | 3072           | $p: 3072, q: 256$                          | 256                               |
| 192                     | 7680           | $p: 7680, q: 384$                          | 384                               |
| 256                     | 15360          | $p: 15360, q: 512$                         | 512                               |

Key sizes recommended by NIST (from §9.3)

# Prime Order Subgroups of $Z_p^*$

- We can “craft”  $p$  in a way that it has a prime order  $q$  subgroup of desired size

THEOREM 8.64 Let  $p = rq + 1$  with  $p, q$  prime. Then

$$G = \{h^r \bmod p \mid h \in Z_p^*\}$$

is a subgroup of  $Z_p^*$  of order  $q$ .

$p$  is called safe prime if  $r=2$

- Choosing uniform element in  $G$ ?
  - Choose random  $h$  from  $Z_p^*$  and compute  $h^r \bmod p$
- Determine if given  $h$  is in  $G$  (any  $h \neq 1$  that is in  $G$  is a generator)
  - Check if  $h^q = 1 \bmod p$

$p$  and  $q$  need to be chosen such that the **running time of the NFS** (depends on the length of  $p$ ), **and the running time of generic algorithms** (depends on the length of  $q$ ) **will be approximately equal.**

# Elliptic Curves



Neal Koblitz: **Elliptic Curve Cryptosystems**. Mathematics of Computation, AMS, 1987.



Victor S. Miller: **Use of Elliptic Curves in Cryptography**. Advances in Cryptology – CRYPTO '85

- Groups discussed so far directly rely on modular arithmetic
- Why not use different groups? Elliptic curve groups?
  - Only generic algorithms for the DLP known!

Rationale: “it is extremely unlikely that an index calculus attack on the elliptic curve method will ever be able to work” [Miller, 85]

# What are Elliptic Curves?

- An elliptic curve  $E$  over a field (we only consider  $\mathbf{Z}_p$  with  $p \geq 5$ , and in particular large  $p$ ) is a cubic equation

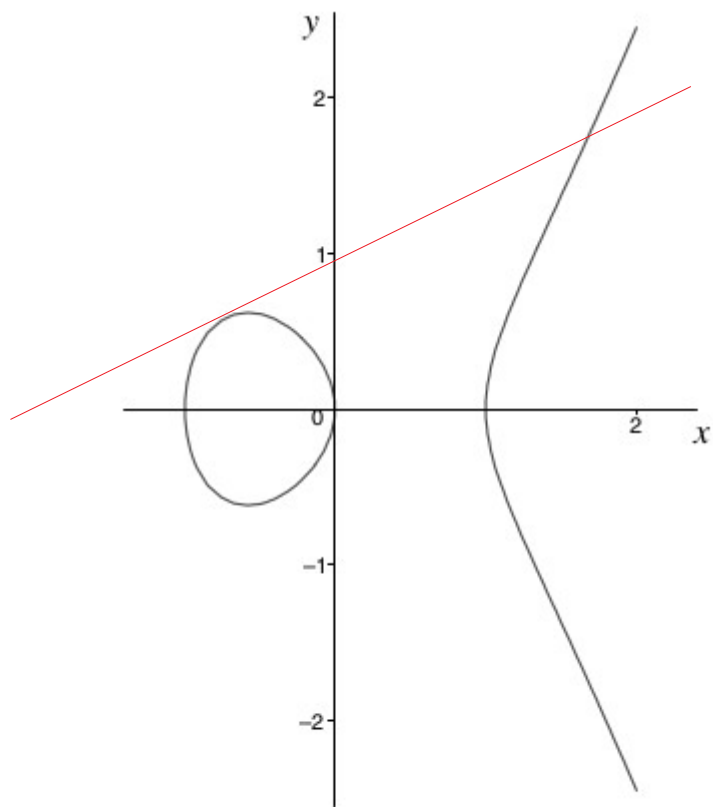
$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \quad (\text{short Weierstrass equation})$$

with  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}_p$  and  $-16(4a^3 + 27b^2) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  (the curve is “smooth”)

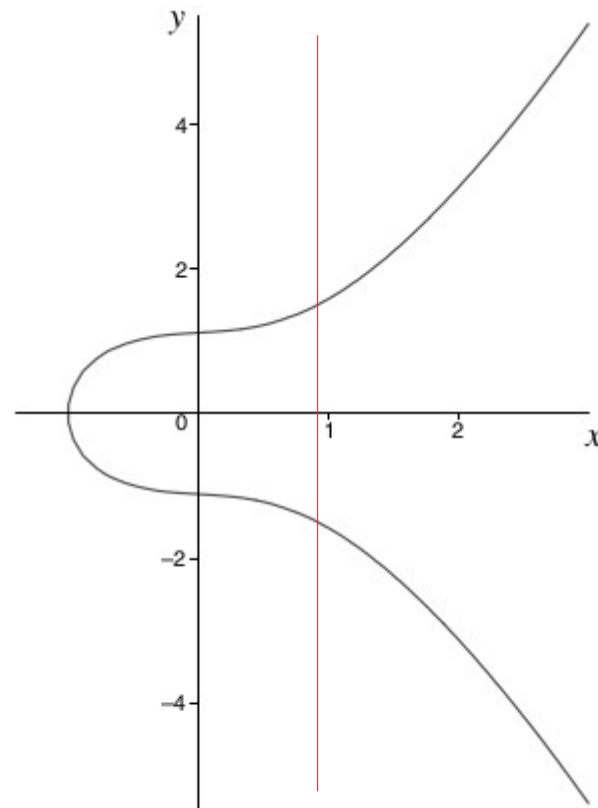
- Let  $E(\mathbf{Z}_p) = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbf{Z}_p \text{ and } y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}\} \cup \{\mathbf{O}\}$ 
  - The elements in  $E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$  are called the **points on the elliptic curve**  $E$
  - $\mathbf{O}$  is called the **point at infinity** (it will act as the identity)

# Elliptic Curves over the Reals

A useful way to think about  $E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$  is to look at the graph over the reals



(a)  $E_1 : y^2 = x^3 - x$



(b)  $E_2 : y^2 = x^3 + \frac{1}{4}x + \frac{5}{4}$

We can think of the point at infinity of sitting on top of the y-axis and lying on every vertical line

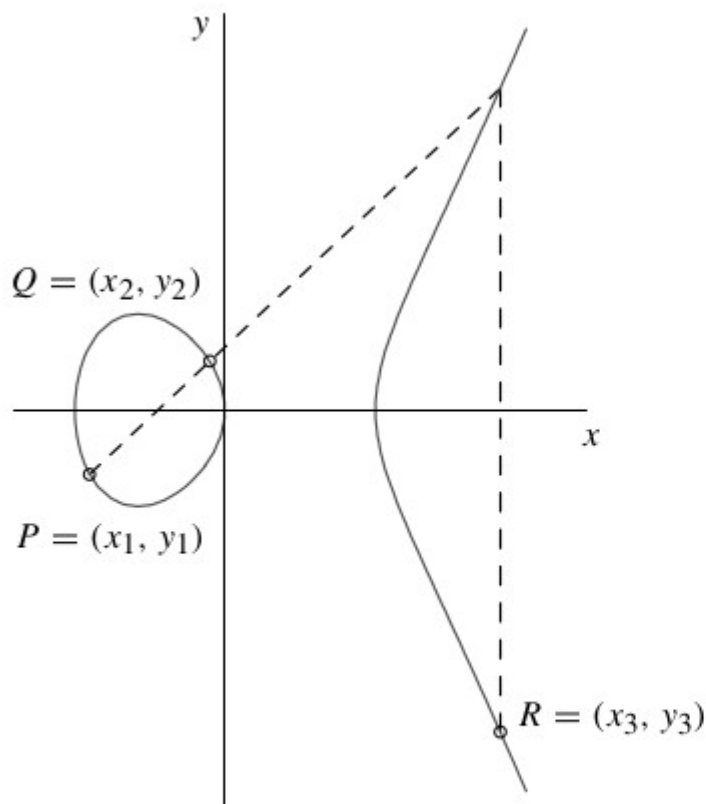
Every line intersecting the curve intersects in exactly three points

- Point P is counted twice if line is tangent to the curve
- Point at infinity is counted when the line is vertical



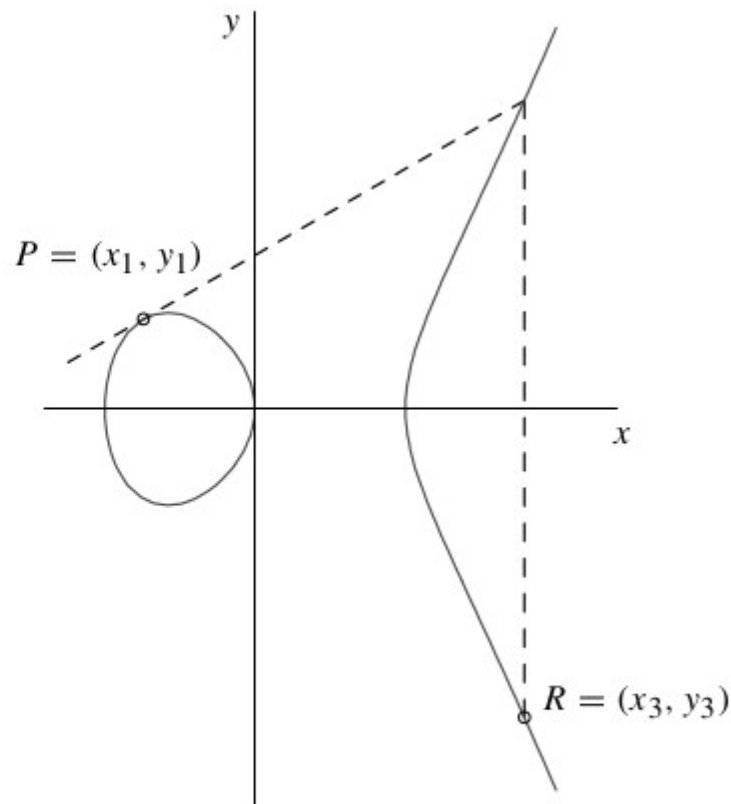
# Elliptic Curves: Group Law (“chord-and-tangent rule”)

- $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$  forms a **group** with additive identity  $\mathbf{O}$ 
  - $\mathbf{O} + P = P + \mathbf{O} = P$  for all  $P \in E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$
  - If  $P = (x, y) \in E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$ , then  $(x, y) + (x, -y) = \mathbf{O}$  and  $-\mathbf{O} = \mathbf{O}$



(a) Addition:  $P + Q = R$ .

$$x_3 = \left( \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \right)^2 - x_1 - x_2 \quad \text{and} \quad y_3 = \left( \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \right) (x_1 - x_3) - y_1.$$



(b) Doubling:  $P + P = R$ .

$$x_3 = \left( \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} \right)^2 - 2x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad y_3 = \left( \frac{3x_1^2 + a}{2y_1} \right) (x_1 - x_3) - y_1.$$

# Elliptic Curves

- For cryptographic applications and in particular for the DLP to be hard we need (sub-) groups of large prime order.
- How large are these elliptic curve groups?
  - Let us define a **quadratic residue (QR)**: An element  $y \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  is a quadratic residue modulo  $p$  if there is an  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  such that  $x^2 = y \pmod{p}$ .
  - For  $p > 2$  prime, half the elements in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  are QRs, and every QR has exactly two square roots.
  - If we look at the equation  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ , each RHS value that is a QR yields two points on the curve and if RHS is 0 it yields one
  - So we heuristically expect to find expect to find  $2 \cdot (p - 1)/2 + 1 = p$  points + the point of infinity, i.e.,  $p+1$  points.

**THEOREM 8.70 (Hasse bound)**: Let  $p$  be prime, and let  $E$  be an elliptic curve over  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ . Then  $p + 1 - 2\sqrt{p} \leq |E(\mathbf{Z}_p)| \leq p + 1 + 2\sqrt{p}$ .

# Elliptic Curves

- How to find curves?
  - We could just randomly generate them: But for random curves the group order will be “close” to uniformly distributed in the Hasse interval
  - We also need to exclude weak curves, i.e., elliptic-curve groups over  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  whose order is equal to  $p$  (anomalous curves) or  $p+1$  (supersingular curves), etc.
  - There are efficient algorithms for counting points on curves, efficiently generating curves
- Typically we use pre-computed standardized curves
  - Standards for Efficient Cryptography (SEC)
  - National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)
  - ECC Brainpool (RFC 5639)
  - Curve25519, Curve448
  - Or BN or BLS if they need to be pairing-friendly

# Elliptic Curves

- Now if we have a suitable elliptic curve group  $E(\mathbf{Z}_p)$  (or a subgroup) of large prime order  $q$  generated by  $P$ , we can define the set  $\{1P, \dots, qP\}$
- We can define the **elliptic curve DLP** (ECDLP) as given  $Q=xP$  to compute  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_q$ 
  - Analogously we can define CDH and DDH
- We can use our efficient square-and-multiply algorithm and apply it to this setting (double-and-add) to compute the scalar multiplication efficiently

# Elliptic Curves

- Although curves standardized decades ago are still widely used, there happened a lot in the last decades
- Starting with Kocher'99, side-channel attacks and their counter-measures have become extremely sophisticated
- Decades of new research yielding faster, simpler and safer ways to do ECC
- Suspicion surrounding previous standards: Snowden leaks, dual EC-DRBG backdoor, etc., lead to conjectured weaknesses in the NIST curves
- Other specific classes of curves enable secure cryptographic pairings
  - and thus interesting applications such as practical identity- and attribute-based cryptography (see Guest Lecture)

# Back to Key Exchange Protocols

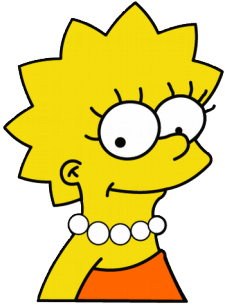
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# Example: KE in $Z_p^*$ (128 bit security – p: 3072 bit)

$p =$

58096059953699580628595025333045743706869751763628952366614861522872037309971102257373360445331184072513261577549805174439905295945400471216628856721  
 8703240103211163970644049884404985098905162720024476580704181239472968054002410482797658436938152229236120877904476989274322575173807697956881130957  
 91255113330932435195537848163063815801618602002474925684481502425153044495771876041364287385809901725515739341462558303664059150008696437320532185668  
 32545291107903722831634138599586406690325959725187447169059540805012310209639011750748760017095360734234945757416272994856013308616958529958304677637  
 01918159408852834506128586389827176345729488354663887955431161544644633019925438234001629205709075117553388816191898729559153153669870129226768546551  
 743791579082315484463478026010289171803249539607504189948551381112697730747896907485704371071615012131592202455675924123901315291971095646840637944291  
 4941614357107914462567329693649

$g = 123456789$



$a =$

7147687166405957187905360554739658269  
 2405186145916522354912615715290791006  
 7917003790492433011601949788108908769  
 613159283138632621095129494584400497  
 4889298038584931918128447572321023987  
 1604390620061776483188754575562337708  
 53912505292364631833219121732146413465  
 5845254917228378772756695589845219962  
 202945089226966507426526912780244641  
 640090259271040043389582611419862375  
 8789881936121879455918028640626798648  
 3957813927304368495559776413009721221  
 8249158109645793763545566554629883777  
 8595680891578821511273574220422646379  
 1705999176775673042069842239249481690  
 67778961749230720712976034558026210721  
 092205466273969774855354375899087960  
 8882627763290293452560094576029847391  
 3613887675543866224792652999780598864  
 72414530462194527618119899746477252908  
 8780604931795419514638292288904557780  
 4592943730526541048518026400207941519  
 3983851143425084273119820368274789460  
 5871003049774770692442789896899105721  
 2096357725203480402449913844583448

$g^a \text{ mod } p =$

197496648183227193286262018614250555971909799762533760654008147994875775445667054218578105133138217497206890599554928429450667899476  
 854668595594034093493637562451078938296960313488696178848142491351687253054602202966247046105770771577248321682117174246128321195678  
 53763152027864940346479735369199673699357709268717838560229887355895412105643052289961976145372708221782347546223803790014235051396  
 799049446508224661850168149957401474638456716624401906701394472447015052569417746372185093302535739383791980070572381421729029651639  
 304234361268764971707763484300668923972868709121665568669830978657804740157916611563508569886847487772676671207386096152947607114559  
 706340209059103703018182635521898738094546294558035569752596676346614699327742088471255741184755866117812209895514952436160199336532  
 6052422101474898256696660124195726100495725510022002932814218768060112310763455404567248761396399633344901857872119208518550803791724



$b =$

855456209464694933606826858160317049  
 69423104727624468251177438749706128879  
 9577019369882685976279047911306230897  
 586342823798589097017957365590672835  
 713863895712246676094993008985548024  
 464030395443007480025079620363866193  
 152298860635410053224484639158979864  
 12102737255837965486539312854838650  
 709031919742048649235894391903529930  
 3267696100508840431979272991603892747  
 7470940948581926791161465028635214849  
 862328619342223917112154568612530  
 276018808591500424849476686706784  
 0687153977068526645326383324039837  
 383796970226246137716316320449382  
 8920603980870340357510046733708501  
 8387148822224875309641791879395483  
 546200348849305403999505191916794  
 2405558557093219350747155775695981  
 008509203947052819363924110844360  
 8183528465724969562186437214972625  
 8822544865996160464558546299370165  
 47042526444562415789958697265293564  
 7856967092689604279650120987036845  
 0012467927615639176399597363830386653  
 62727158

$g^b \text{ mod } p =$

41160466206959330668322852565344187241077799922057207999357439723715636876203837833274247193966654496879381781932149526983361316993  
 986164811320795616949957400518206385310292475529284550626247132930124027703140131220968771142788394846592816111078275196955258045178  
 70525401646977350993692536199489589416306555110516192961313921978219875754298482646589345776888891556151450504809185615941297757604  
 07356322557280988097005839650171966585311010130843264742778656552512132877258716784203762419014390978793866584200569191199739672645  
 110758448552553744288464337906540312125397571803103278271979007681841394534114315726120595749993896347981789310754194864577435905673  
 172970033596584445206671223874399576560291954856168126236657381519414592942037018351232440467191228145585909045861278091800166330876  
 4973238447199488070126873048860279221761629281961046255219584327714817248626243962413430175956771001801738572499949511777914941688218

$g^{ab} \text{ mod } p =$

33016691952419214932376173359842624469122419995889465403633152639435009908862730297983339501183059198113987880066739  
 41999923137897071530703931787625845387670112454384952097943202330277503265010724513551209279573183234934359636696506  
 968325769489511028943698821518689496597758218540767517885836464160289471651364552490713961456608536013301649753975875  
 610659655755567443818035795836022670874234817504556343707584096923082676034061119437657466993989389348289599600338  
 95037225133693267357174342882302601469923207116171392219599691096846714133643382745709376112500514300983651201961186  
 613464267685926563624589817259637248558104903657371981684417053993082671827345252841433337325420088380059232089174946  
 0865366649848360413340316504386926391062876271575758383128971053401037407031731509582807639509448704617983930135028  
 7596589383292751993079161318839043121329118930009948197899907586986108953591420279426874779423560221038468

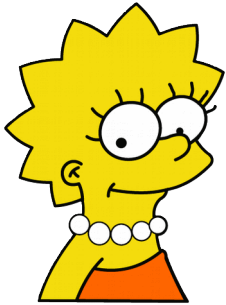
# Example: KE using Elliptic Curves (128 bit security – p: 256 bit)

NIST Curve P-

$$p = 2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1$$

p = 115792089210356248762697446949407573530086143415290314195533631308867097853951

$$E(\mathbb{F}_p) : y^2 = x^3 - 3x + b$$



a =

89130644591246  
03357763977064  
14628550231450  
28492835255603  
183721922317324  
614395

#E = 115792089210356248762697446949407573529996955224135760342422259061068512044369

P =

(48439561293906451759052585252797914202762949526041747995844080717082404635286,  
36134250956749795798585127919587881956611106672985015071877198253568414405109)

aP =

(8411620826131589816759306786820052561234422188633  
3785331584793435449501658416,  
102885655542185598026739250172885300109680266058  
548048621945393128043427650740)

bP =

(101228882920057626679704131545407930245895491542  
090988999577542687271695288383,  
7788741819030402299411659503455625776080718561567  
9689372138134363978498341594)



b =

10095557463932  
78641880693831  
61907080327719  
10919058405391  
67978108219340  
5190826

abP = (10122888292005762667970413154540793024589549154209098899957754268727169528838  
3,  
77887418190304022994116595034556257760807185615679689372138134363978498341594)

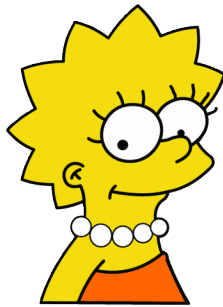


# Diffie-Hellman(-Merkle) KE Protocol

- Now we are going to abstract away again the concrete setting and consider a group  $G$  of prime order  $q$  and generator  $g$

$$a \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q; A \leftarrow g^a$$

$$b \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q; B \leftarrow g^b$$



$A$



$B$



$$K_A \leftarrow B^a$$

$$K_B \leftarrow A^b$$



Ok, how to prove security of this protocol?

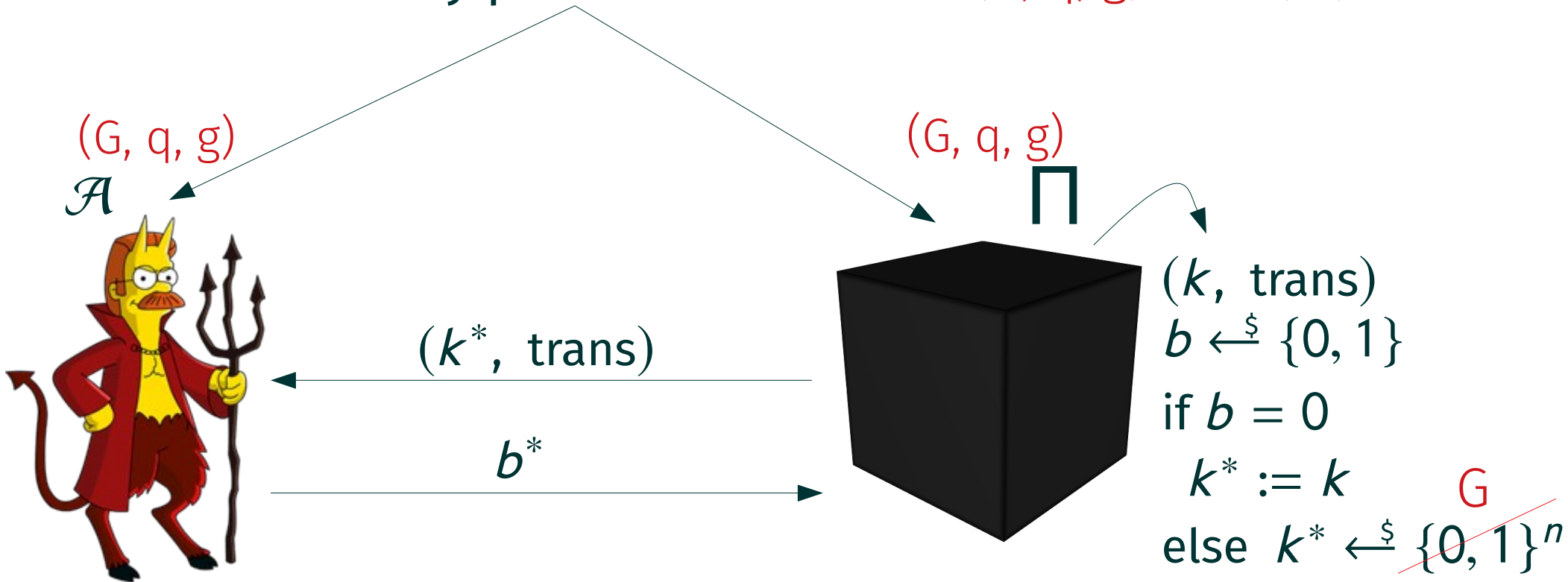
- Under DL? Other means of computing shared key?
- Under CDH? Only the complete shared key protected?
- Under DDH?

\* definitional framework and idea of formulating assumptions not known back in the 70ies

# Security Definition

$\widehat{KE}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}$  Security

security parameter  $n \in \mathbb{N}$   $(G, q, g) \leftarrow_{\$} \mathbf{G}(1^n)$



A key-exchange protocol  $\Pi$  is secure in the presence of an eavesdropper if for every PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$

$$\Pr[b = b^*] \leq 1/2 + \text{negl}(n)$$

# Analysis of the DH(M) KE Protocol

THEOREM 10.3: If the DDH problem is hard relative to  $G$ , then the Diffie-Hellman key-exchange protocol  $\Pi$  is secure in the presence of an eavesdropper (with respect to experiment  $\widehat{\text{KE}}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}$ ).

Proof: Let  $A$  be a PPT adversary.

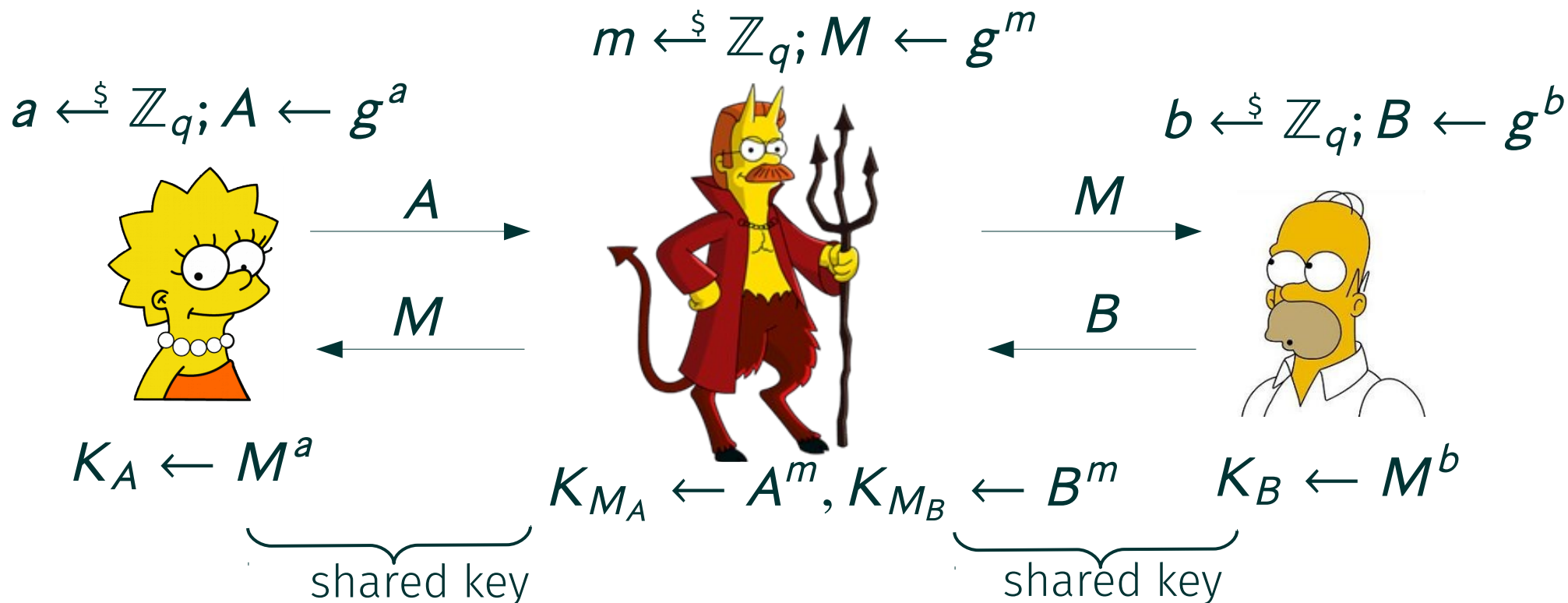
- Since  $\Pr[b = 0] = \Pr[b = 1] = 1/2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr[\widehat{\text{KE}}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1] \\ &= 1/2 \cdot \Pr[\widehat{\text{KE}}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1 | b = 0] + 1/2 \cdot \Pr[\widehat{\text{KE}}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1 | b = 1] \\ &= 1/2 \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) = 0] + 1/2 \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] \\ &= 1/2 \cdot (1 - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) = 1]) + 1/2 \cdot \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] \\ &= 1/2 + 1/2 \cdot (\Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) = 1]) \\ &= 1/2 + 1/2 \cdot \underbrace{|\Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(G, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) = 1]|}_{\leq \text{negl}(n)}, \end{aligned}$$

$$\Pr[\widehat{\text{KE}}_{\mathcal{A}, \Pi}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1] \leq 1/2 + 1/2 \cdot \text{negl}(n).$$

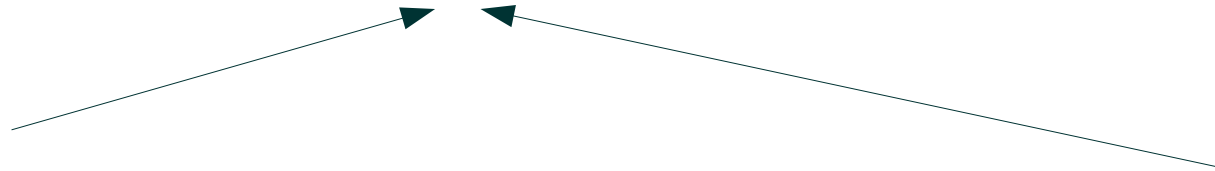
# Analysis of the DH(M) KE Protocol

- Summary
  - Can prove eavesdropping security under DDH (not surprising; the assumption was basically modeled to abstract the analysis of these protocols)
- What did we miss so far?
  - **Active adversaries:** Man-in-the-middle



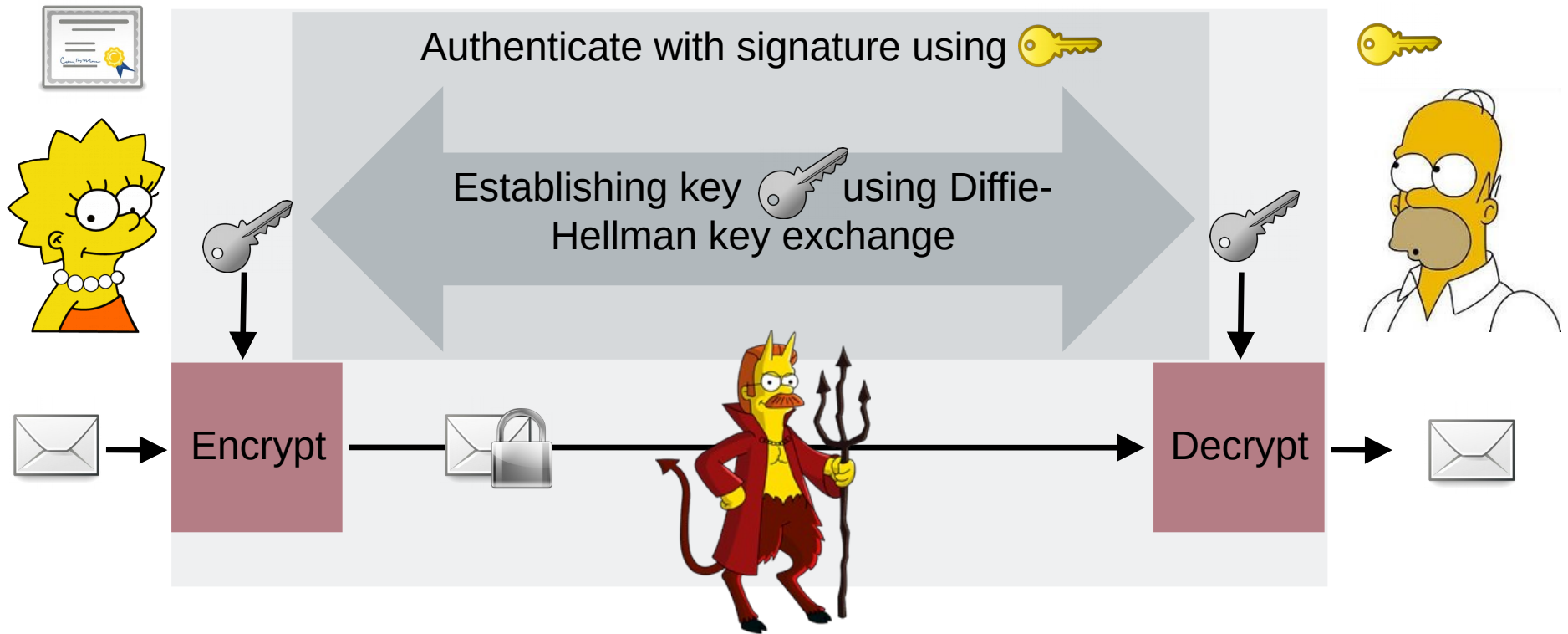
# Countering man-in-the-middle attacks (Authenticated KE - AKE)

Will talk about signatures soon!



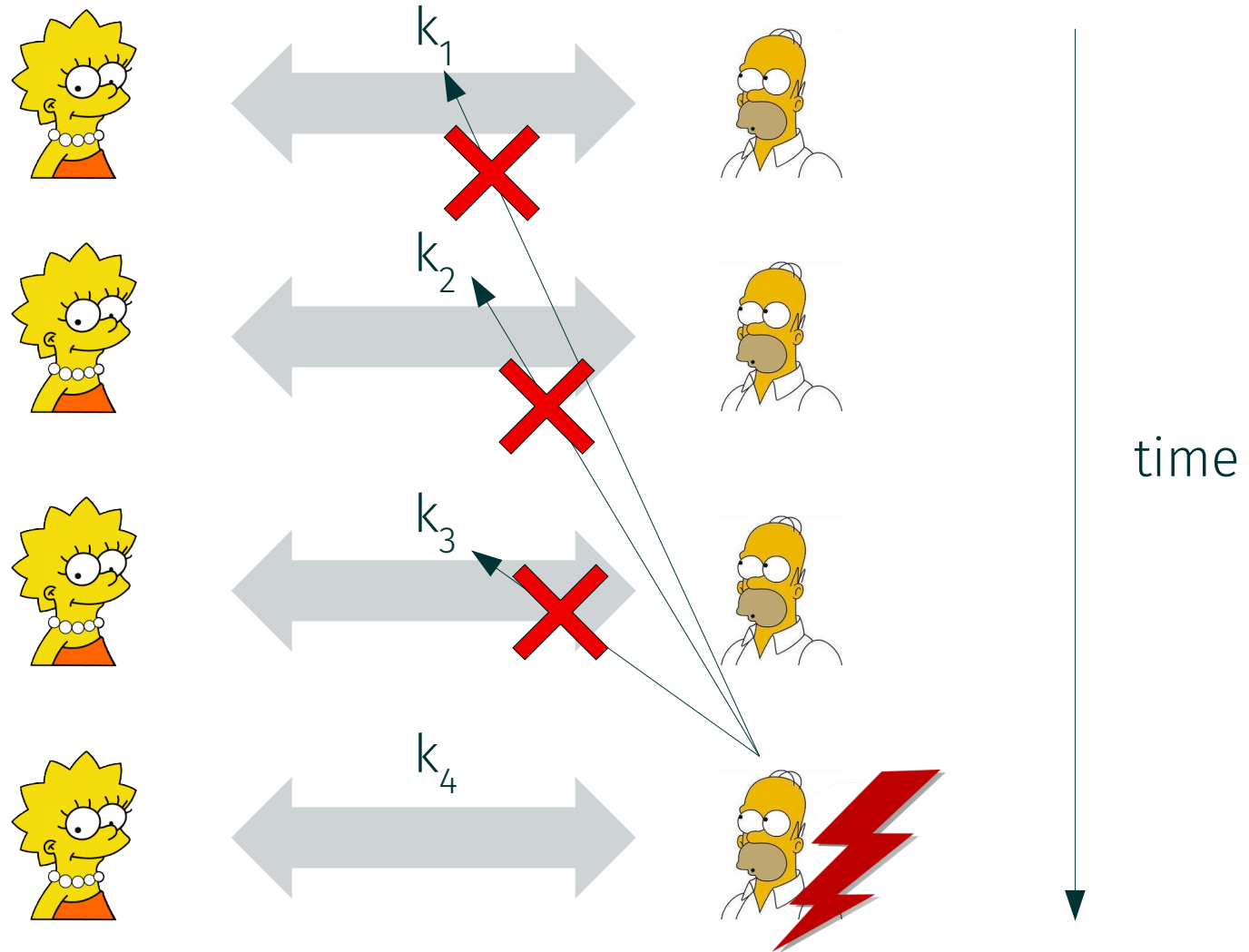
Certified signature verification key

Signing key



# Perfect Forward Secrecy

Another important property: Perfect forward secrecy



# Alternatives to DL based KE Protocols: Outlook

- Shor: computing discrete logarithms (and factoring) in polynomial time on a **quantum computer**
  - If we have a sufficiently powerful quantum computer, then DL and ECDL (as well as factoring) based systems will be dead



Peter Shor

- What to do if this should happen?
  - Post-quantum cryptography: (asymmetric) cryptography that is conjectured to resist attacks using classical and quantum computers
- Very active field of research
  - Lattices
  - Codes
  - Isogenies (e.g., on supersingular elliptic curves – weak for EC crypto but good for PQ)
  - Etc.



<https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/post-quantum-cryptography>