

# Discrete logarithm and related cryptosystems - II

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## Security issues on Diffie-Hellman related problems

### Prime order groups

#### Uniformity

Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be a group of prime order  $q$  with  $|q| = n$  and generator  $g$ . If  $x_1, x_2$  are randomly chosen from  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , there is a negligible function  $\delta$ , such that for all  $z \in \mathbb{G}$ , we have

$$\Pr[(g^{x_1 x_2}) = z] = \frac{1}{q} - \delta(n).$$

**First guess:** When  $\mathbb{G} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $p$  prime, we have that  $q = p - 1$  and thus  $\mathbb{G}$  does not have prime order.

**A better one:** Use the quadratic residue subgroup  $\mathbb{QR}_p$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ . If  $p = 2q + 1$ , with  $q$  prime,  $\mathbb{QR}_p$  has prime order  $q = \frac{(p-1)}{2}$ .

Example:  $(\mathbb{QR}_{11}, \times \text{ mod } 11)$

$a$	$a^2 \text{ mod } 11$
1	1
2	4
3	9
4	5
5	3
6	3
7	5
8	9
9	4
10	1

So,  $\mathbb{QR}_{11} = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$  has order  $\frac{(11-1)}{2} = 5$ .

**Exercise:** Verify that  $\mathbb{QR}_p$  is, indeed, a group.

## Security Issues on ElGamal encryption

Remember  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ -based ElGamal encryption and decryption:

### Encryption of $m$ :

- 1 Choose integer  $k$  uniformly random in  $\mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ .
- 2 Compute  $Enc_K(m, k) = (c_1, c_2)$ , where  $c_1 = \alpha^k \text{ mod } p$ ,  $c_2 = m\beta^k \text{ mod } p$ , and  $\beta \equiv \alpha^a \text{ (mod } p)$ .

**Decryption:** Compute  $Dec_K(c_1, c_2) = c_2(c_1^a)^{-1} \text{ mod } p$ .

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**Decryption:** Compute  $Dec_K(c_1, c_2) = c_2(c_1^a)^{-1} \bmod p$ .

Now note that:

- Ciphertexts  $(c_1, c_2)$  and  $(c_1, c'_2 = c_2 \cdot m')$ , for any  $m' \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , are both valid. This may be used by an adversary that intercepted  $(c_1, c_2)$ , e.g. in a chosen plaintext attack, or in an impersonation attack.
- Furthermore, to avoid the detection of ciphertexts with same  $c_1$ , the adversary can multiply  $c_1$  and  $c'_2$  by  $\alpha^y$  and  $\beta^y$ , respectively, where  $y$  is a random element in  $\mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ .
- **Verify these claims!**

## Implementation issues on discrete log-based encryption

Encoding a message as a group element depends on the group representation.

Sharing system parameters among different users does not appear to have security implications.

Avoid generating your parameters and use standardized ones!

# Computing discrete logarithms

There are many approaches for computing discrete logarithms. Some notables ones are:

- Shanks' (Babystep-Giantstep) Algorithm
- Pollard  $\rho$  Method
- Pohlig-Hellman Algorithm
- Index Calculus Method

**Important:** It is common for advances in integer factoring to produce advances in discrete logarithms over  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

## Shanks' (Babystep-Giantstep) Algorithm

### Shanks' Algorithm

**Input:** group  $\mathbb{G}$ ,  $n = |\mathbb{G}|$ ,  $\alpha, \beta$

**Output:**  $\log_{\alpha} \beta$

- 1  $m \leftarrow \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$
- 2 **For**  $j \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $m - 1$  compute  $\alpha^{mj}$
- 3 Store the pairs  $(j, \alpha^{mj})$  in a hash table  $L_1$ , keyed by the second component
- 4 **For**  $i \leftarrow 0$  **to**  $m - 1$  compute  $\beta\alpha^{-i}$
- 5 Store the pairs  $(i, \beta\alpha^{-i})$  in a hash table  $L_2$ , keyed by the second component
- 6 Find pairs  $(j, y) \in L_1$  and  $(i, y) \in L_2$
- 7 **Return**  $\log_{\alpha} \beta = (mj + i) \bmod n$

See Example 2.23 in "Introduction to Mathematical Cryptography."

# Shanks' Algorithm

## Correctness:

$$\alpha^{mj} = y = \beta\alpha^{-i} \Rightarrow \alpha^{mj+i} = \beta.$$

## Complexity:

- Computing tables  $L_1, L_2$  takes  $O(m) = O(n^{1/2}) = O(2^{k/2})$  steps, where  $k = O(\log_2 n)$  is the size (number of bits) of the input  $n$ .
- Finding pairs  $(j, y) \in L_1$  and  $(i, y) \in L_2$  also takes  $O(m)$  steps, since the tables are ordered (keyed) by these values.
- Thus, Shanks' Algorithm is exponential in time and space. However, it is much better than an  $O(n)$ -time algorithm for the exhaustive search of the discrete log.

## Note that:

- The number of steps to perform one multiplication of two group elements is usually very small when compared to  $O(n^{1/2})$ , so we omit it from the discussion above.

# Pollard $\rho$ Method

Pollard's Algorithm has the same time complexity as Shanks' but with constant ( $O(1)$ ) space complexity, a big improvement! Let's first discuss Pollard's method in a more abstract setting.

Suppose we have a finite set  $S$  and a random map  $f : S \rightarrow S$ . Then, the sequence

$$x_0 = x, x_1 = f(x_0), x_2 = f(x_1) \dots$$

will eventually produce  $x_T = x_{M+T}$ .

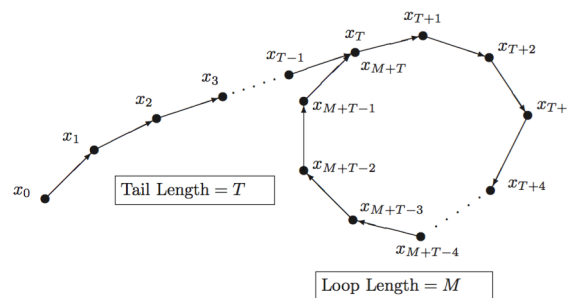


Figure 4.1: Pollard's  $\rho$  method

Figure: From Intro. to Math. Crypto. - Hoffstein et al.

## Pollard $\rho$ Method

**Question:** Can we find collisions without storing  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_T, \dots, x_{T+M}$ ?

**Pollard's answer:** Yes! Just calculate simultaneously the two sequences

$$x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots \quad \text{and} \quad x_0, x_2, x_4, x_6, \dots$$

Then,

- $x_{2i} = x_i$  iff  $(i \leq T \text{ and } 2i \equiv i \pmod{M})$  iff  $M|i$ ;
- that is, we get  $x_{2i} = x_i$  when  $i$  is equal to the first multiple of  $M$ ;
- and since one of  $M$  in  $T, T+1, \dots, T+M-1$  is divisible by  $M$ , we have that

$$x_{2i} = x_i \text{ for some } 1 \leq i < T + M.$$

Now, Theorem 4.47 of the IMC book proves that, if the map  $f$  is sufficiently random, then  $T + M$  is, in average,  $\approx 1.25 \cdot \sqrt{|S|}$ .

Thus, we can find collisions in constant space and  $O(\sqrt{|S|})$  time.

## Pollard $\rho$ Method

We now show how to instantiate a suitable map  $f$  in order to find  $\log_{\alpha} \beta$  in a group  $\mathbb{G}$ , where  $\alpha \in \mathbb{G}$  has order  $n$ .

First define  $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3$ , a partition of  $\mathbb{G}$  in three different sets of similar size.

Now define the map  $f$  as

$$f(x, a, b) = \begin{cases} (\beta x, a, b + 1), & \text{if } x \in S_1; \\ (x^2, 2a, 2b), & \text{if } x \in S_2; \\ (\alpha x, a + 1, b), & \text{if } x \in S_3. \end{cases}$$

Note that map  $f$  merely produces triples of the type  $(\alpha^A \beta^B, A, B)$ .

## Pollard $\rho$ Method

Now, starting with triple  $(1, 0, 0)$ , we iterate  $f$  and eventually find two triples  $(x_{2i}, a_{2i}, b_{2i})$  and  $(x_i, a_i, b_i)$  with  $x_{2i} = x_i$ .

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha^{a_{2i}} \beta^{b_{2i}} &= \alpha^{a_i} \beta^{b_i} \\ \alpha^{a_{2i} + (\log_{\alpha} \beta) b_{2i}} &= \alpha^{a_i + (\log_{\alpha} \beta) b_i} \\ a_{2i} + (\log_{\alpha} \beta) b_{2i} &\equiv a_i + (\log_{\alpha} \beta) b_i \pmod{n} \\ \log_{\alpha} \beta &= \frac{a_i - a_{2i}}{b_{2i} - b_i} \pmod{n}\end{aligned}$$

## Pollard $\rho$ Method

### Pollard $\rho$ Algorithm

**Input:** Group  $\mathbb{G}$ , elements  $\alpha, \beta$ , such that  $\beta \in \langle \alpha \rangle$ .

- 1 Define the partition  $S_1 \cup S_2 \cup S_3$  for  $\mathbb{G}$ , used in map  $f$ .
- 2  $(x, a, b) \leftarrow f(1, 0, 0)$
- 3  $(x', a', b') \leftarrow f(x, a, b)$
- 4 **While**  $x \neq x'$ 
  - $(x, a, b) \leftarrow f(x, a, b)$
  - $(x', a', b') \leftarrow f(x', a', b')$
  - $(x', a', b') \leftarrow f(x', a', b')$
- 5 **If**  $\gcd(b' - b, n) \neq 1$  **return** FAIL;  
otherwise, **return**  $(a - a')(b' - b)^{-1} \pmod{n}$ .

**Important:** As is evident, this algorithm may not return a valid result. This is, however, unlikely for carefully chosen maps  $f$ .