
Applied Cryptography and Computer Security

CSE 664 Spring 2017

Lecture 15: Discrete Logarithms and ElGamal Encryption

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What's Next

- So far we looked at a **public-key encryption scheme modulo a composite**
 - the difficulty of breaking it lies in factoring and computing roots modulo a composite
- Now we are going to study a **public-key encryption scheme modulo a prime**
 - discrete logarithms
 - Diffie-Hellman problem
 - ElGamal encryption

Terminology Recap

- Recall that **group** G is a set of elements together with
 - a binary operation for which the associative law holds and the set is closed under that operation
 - a unique identity element
 - and unique inverses for each element a of G
- The **multiplicative group modulo** m is denoted by \mathbb{Z}_m^*
- A **cyclic group** is one that contains an element a whose powers a^i and a^{-i} make up the entire group
- An element a with such property is called a **generator** of the group

ElGamal Encryption

- The idea behind **ElGamal encryption**
 - we are given a cyclic multiplicative group G
 - let $m \in G$ be an arbitrary element
 - if g is an element of G chosen uniformly at random, then so is $g' = g \cdot m$
 - m is perfectly protected
 - we want g to be pseudorandom
 - g is computable using the private key sk and can't be guessed otherwise

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Discrete logarithms**

- we are given a cyclic group G of order q
- then there exists an element $g \in G$ such that $G = \langle g \rangle = \{g^i : 0 \leq i \leq q - 1\}$
- for each $h \in G$ there is a unique x such that $g^x = h$
- such x is called the discrete logarithm of h with respect to g and we use $x = \log_g h$
- many properties of regular logarithms apply
 - $\log_g 1 = 0$
 - $\log_g(h_1 \cdot h_2) = (\log_g h_1 + \log_g h_2) \bmod q$

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **The discrete logarithm problem**
 - in a cyclic group G with given generator g , compute unique $\log_g h$ for a random element $h \in G$
- Let PPT algorithm $Set(1^k)$ output a cyclic group G of order q and generator $g \in G$
- **The discrete logarithm experiment $DLog_{\mathcal{A}, Set}(k)$:**
 1. Run $(G, q, g) \leftarrow Set(1^k)$ and choose random $h \in G$
 2. \mathcal{A} is given G, q, g, h and outputs $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
 3. the experiment outputs 1 if $g^x = h$ and 0 otherwise

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- We say that the **discrete logarithm problem is hard** (relative to Set) if any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} cannot win the discrete logarithm experiment with a non-negligible probability

$$\Pr[\text{DLog}_{\mathcal{A}, Set}(k) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(k)$$

- **When is the discrete logarithm problem hard?**
 - most often a multiplicative group modulo prime p , \mathbb{Z}_p^* , or its subgroup is used
 - the choice of parameters is driven by known algorithms for solving the discrete logarithm problem

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Is the discrete logarithm problem generally hard?**
 - **it is hard in (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) using proper parameters**
 - **how about $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$?**
 - **let $\gcd(g, n) = 1$, so g is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_n**
 - **now $g^x \bmod n$ in multiplicative groups translates to $gx \bmod n$**
 - **the discrete logarithm problem is then $gx \equiv h \pmod{n}$**
 - **but since $\gcd(g, n) = 1$, we can compute $g^{-1} \bmod n$**
 - **now $x = \log_g h = hg^{-1} \bmod n$**
 - **are there other cases when $\log_g h$ is hard?**

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Algorithms for solving discrete log**
 - **there are generic algorithms that work for every cyclic group**
 - **e.g., Shanks' method, Pollard rho method, Pohlig-Hellman algorithm**
 - **there are algorithms that work for certain groups only**
 - **they rely on particular representation of the group**
 - **they are faster and will require larger security parameters**
 - **e.g., general number field sieve for (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) with prime p**
 - **for certain groups, there are no better attacks than generic algorithms**
 - **e.g., groups over elliptic curves**

Algorithms for Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Shanks' baby-step/giant-step algorithm**

- the algorithm requires $O(\sqrt{q})$ steps for groups of order q
- “giant steps” are of size \sqrt{q} and “baby steps” are of size 1
- algorithm steps on input $G = \langle g \rangle$ and $h \in G$
 1. set $t = \lfloor \sqrt{q} \rfloor$
 2. for $i = 0$ to $\lfloor q/t \rfloor$, compute $g_i = g^{i \cdot t}$
 3. sort pairs (i, g_i) by second value
 4. for $i = 0$ to t , compute $h_i = h \cdot h^i$; if $h_i = g_j$ for some j , return $jt - i \bmod q$
- taking into account sorting and mod exponentiations & multiplications, overall complexity is $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \text{polylog}(q))$

Algorithms for Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Pohlig-Hellman algorithm**
 - works when factorization of group order q is known or can be computed
 - reduces the problem of computing discrete log in groups of order $q = q_1 \cdot q_2$ to discrete log in groups of order q_1 and q_2
 - it uses a variant of the Chinese remainder theorem
 - thus, group order q must always contain at least one large factor

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **Discrete logarithm problem**
 - **groups of prime order** are a popular choice because..
 - Pohlig-Hellman algorithm is not effective
 - finding a generator is easy: each element is a generator
 - exponent manipulation is easier: each exponent has an inverse
 - other security assumptions are more likely to hold
- **How do we produce a group of prime order or with a large factor in the group order?**

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- A **subgroup** of a group is a subset of the group that forms a group with the same binary operation
 - for example, powers a^i in a multiplicative group can “hit” only a subset of the group elements
- A group (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) for prime p has order $\phi(p) = p - 1$
- Subgroups of \mathbb{Z}_p^* can have any order q that divides $p - 1$
 - we often might want $p = 2q + 1$ for prime p and q
 - or we can have $p = 2qt + 1$ for reasonably large prime q and some t

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **How do we generate a subgroup?**
 - let order of some group G be $q = q_1 \cdot q_2$
 - to obtain generator of subgroup of order q_1 , we often can pick $a \in G$ and set $g = a^{q_2}$
- **How do we generate proper prime p ?**
 - we want to generate primes p and q such that $q | (p - 1)$
 - to do so, we need to know the factorization of $p - 1$
 - **approach 1:** generate a random prime p and then factor $p - 1$
 - **approach 2:** generate a random q first and then choose r such that $p = 2rq + 1$ is prime

Discrete Logarithm Problem

- **The choice of parameters**
 - **for group \mathbb{Z}_p^* , p needs to be large enough for discrete log to be hard to solve**
 - **fastest algorithm runs on average in $2^{O(k^{1/3}(\log k)^{2/3})}$ time**
 - **today this requires $|p|$ of 1536 bits or higher**
 - **the group order must have at least one large factor to prevent exhaustive search**
 - **e.g., 192 bits or higher**
 - **if the group order is prime, it can be relatively short (same 192 bits)**
 - **this can improve performance**

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **ElGamal encryption**
 - a public-key encryption published in 1985 by **ElGamal**
 - its security relies on the discrete logarithm problem being hard
 - the encryption operation is randomized
 - a ciphertext is twice as long as the original message
 - **the idea:**
 - the plaintext m is masked by multiplying it by h^y
 - another value g^y is transmitted as part of the ciphertext
 - knowing the private key, one can compute h^y from g^y and unmask the message

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **Key generation**

- choose a cyclic group G of order q and a generator $g \in G$
- choose a random x from \mathbb{Z}_q and compute $h = g^x$
- public key: $pk = (G, q, g, h)$
- private key: $sk = x$

- **Encryption**

- to encrypt a message $m \in G$ using public key $pk = (G, q, g, h)$
- choose a random number $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
- compute the ciphertext as
$$c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = (c_1, c_2) = (g^y, m \cdot h^y)$$

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **Decryption**

- given a ciphertext $c = (c_1, c_2)$ and keys $pk = (G, q, g, h)$, $sk = x$
- decrypt the ciphertext as $m = \text{Dec}_{sk}(c) = c_2 \cdot c_1^{-x}$

- **Correctness**

- we show that $\text{Dec}_{sk}(\text{Enc}_{pk}(m)) = m$
- the decryption is

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **Example**

- **key generation**

- let $p = 2579$ and $g = 2$
 - suppose we choose $x = 765$ and compute $h = 2^{765} \bmod 2579 = 949$
 - the public key is $pk = (2579, 2, 949)$
 - the secret key is $sk = 765$

- **encryption**

- to encrypt $m = 1299$, suppose we choose $y = 853$
 - to encrypt, first compute $c_1 = 2^{853} \bmod 2579 = 435$ and $c_2 = 1299 \cdot 949^{853} \bmod 2579 = 2396$

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **Example** (cont.)

- **encryption**

- the ciphertext is $c = (435, 2396)$

- **decryption**

- given $c = (c_1, c_2)$, we decrypt the message by computing $c_2 \cdot (c_1^x)^{-1} \bmod p$:

$$m = 2396 \cdot (435^{765})^{-1} \bmod 2579 = 1299$$

- **Security** of ElGamal encryption

- depends on the discrete logarithm problem in G being infeasible
- but it is based on a different hardness assumption

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **On parameter choice in ElGamal**
 - **if g is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^***
 - **p should have several hundred digits for the discrete logarithm to be hard**
 - **$p - 1$ should have at least one large prime factor**
 - **if g does not generate \mathbb{Z}_p^***
 - **the order of g can be smaller than $p - 1$**
 - **for instance, prime order q of length 192 bits is sufficient**
 - **the group doesn't have to be \mathbb{Z}_p^***
 - **other choices include groups defined over elliptic curves**

ElGamal Public-Key Encryption

- **On parameter choice in ElGamal**
 - **sharing parameters**
 - **unlike in cryptosystems that use composite modulus, here the same p and g can be used in many keys**
 - **when modulus $n = pq$ is used, its factorization is often the private key or allows to compute the private key**
 - **here both p and g are public**
 - **that makes this encryption secure is the knowledge of the secret value x**
 - **a fresh value of y should be picked for each encryption**

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- **Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol**
 - Alice and Bob want to compute a shared key, which must be unknown to eavesdroppers
 - Alice and Bob share public parameters: a group G of order q and a generator g
 - Alice randomly chooses $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and sends g^x to Bob: $A \xrightarrow{g^x} B$
 - Bob randomly chooses $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and sends g^y to Alice: $A \xleftarrow{g^y} B$
 - the shared secret is set to g^{xy}
 - Alice computes it as $(g^y)^x = g^{xy}$
 - Bob computes it as $(g^x)^y = g^{xy}$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- **Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol**
 - Alice and Bob are able to establish a shared secret with no prior relationship
 - it is believed to be infeasible for an eavesdropper to compute g^{xy} given g^x and g^y
- **Diffie-Hellman problem**
 - **Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem**
 - given g , g^x and g^y , compute g^{xy}
 - **Decision Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem**
 - given g , g^x , g^y , and g^z , determine whether $xy = z$ (modulo q)

Diffie-Hellman Problem

- As before, **CDH (DDH) problem is hard** if any PPT adversary \mathcal{A} has at most negligible probability in solving it
- **Diffie-Hellman problem**
 - **DDH is a stronger assumption than CDH**
 - **breaking CDH implies breaking DDH, but the converse is not true**
 - **discrete log is at least as hard as CDH**
 - **security of the Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol is based on the CDH assumption**

Security of ElGamal Encryption

- **Going back to ElGamal**
 - if the CDH assumption holds, ElGamal is one-way
 - i.e., if you can solve the CDH problem, you will be able to decrypt
 - if the DDH assumption holds, ElGamal is secure in the sense of indistinguishability
- **Formally:** if the DDH problem is hard (relative to Set), then the ElGamal encryption scheme has **indistinguishable encryptions under a chosen-plaintext attack**

Security of ElGamal Encryption

- **Security proof sketch**

Security of ElGamal Encryption

- Care must be taken when **mapping messages to group elements**
 - one (least significant) bit of discrete logarithm is easy to compute
 - we say that an element $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is a **quadratic residue (QR) modulo p** if there exists $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ such that $y = x^2 \pmod{p}$
 - given a ciphertext, an adversary can tell whether the underlying plaintext was a QR modulo p or not
 - to ensure indistinguishability, we need to make sure that all values we use will have the same value for that bit
 - thus, we encode messages as $x^2 \pmod{p}$ only

ElGamal Encryption

- **More on quadratic residues**

- **a is called a quadratic residue (QR) modulo m if $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{m}$ has solutions**
- **a is called a quadratic non-residue (QNR) otherwise**
- **there are the same number, $(p - 1)/2$, of QRs and QNRs modulo prime p among numbers $1, \dots, p - 1$**
- **if a is a QR modulo prime p , its square roots are $\pm x \pmod{p}$**
 - **then one solution is $\leq (p - 1)/2$ and the other one is not**
- **square roots are efficiently computable**

ElGamal Encryption

- **Encryption with ElGamal becomes**
 - **given a message m , interpret it as a integer between 1 and q , where $q = (p - 1)/2$**
 - **compute $\hat{m} = m^2 \bmod p$ and encrypt \hat{m}**
 - **upon decryption:**
 - **obtain \hat{m}**
 - **compute square roots m_1, m_2 of \hat{m} modulo p**
 - **set m to the unique $1 \leq m_i \leq q$**

Summary

- The **discrete logarithm problem** is considered hard in groups modulo a large prime
- Many constructions rely on it
- **ElGamal** is an example of encryption that assumes hardness of discrete logarithm problem
- **Diffie-Hellman key exchange** is built using similar assumptions
 - two types of hardness assumptions are known as computational and decision Diffie-Hellman problems
- ElGamal is **CPA-secure** under the DDH assumption