Applied Cryptography and Computer Security CSE 664 Spring 2020

## 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 logarithms

- we are given a cyclic group G of order q
- then there exists an element  $g \in G$  such that  $G = \langle g \rangle = \{g^i : 0 \le i \le q - 1\}$
- 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
  - $\log_g 1 = 0$

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•  $\log_g(h_1 \cdot h_2) = (\log_g h_1 + \log_g h_2) \mod q$ 

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• The discrete logarithm problem

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- 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<sup>k</sup>) output a cyclic group G of order q and generator g ∈ 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

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

$$\Pr[\mathsf{DLog}_{\mathcal{A},Set}(k) = 1] \le \operatorname{negl}(k)$$

- 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

- 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  $g^x \mod n$  in multiplicative groups translates to  $gx \mod n$
    - the discrete logarithm problem is then  $gx \equiv h \pmod{n}$
    - but since gcd(g, n) = 1, we can compute  $g^{-1} \mod n$
    - now  $x = \log_g h = hg^{-1} \mod n$
  - are there other cases when  $\log_g h$  is hard?

- 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  $t = \lfloor \sqrt{q} \rfloor$

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- 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  $h_i = h \cdot g^i$ ; if  $h_i = g_j$  for some j, return  $jt i \mod q$
- taking into account sorting and mod exponentiations & multiplications, overall complexity is  $O(\sqrt{q} \cdot \text{polylog}(q))$

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## **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
  - 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?

- 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

- 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

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- 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 2048 bits or higher
  - the group order must have at least one large factor to prevent exhaustive search
    - e.g., 224 bits or higher
  - if the group order is prime, it can be relatively short (same 224 bits)
    - this can improve performance

#### • 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

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#### • 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  $c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = (c_1, c_2) = (g^y, m \cdot h^y)$

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#### • 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  $\operatorname{Dec}_{sk}(\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m)) = m$
- the decryption is

- Example
  - key generation
    - let p = 2579 and g = 2
    - suppose we choose x = 765 and compute  $h = 2^{765} \mod 2579 = 949$
    - 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  $c_1 = 2^{853} \mod 2579 = 435$  and  $c_2 = 1299 \cdot 949^{853} \mod 2579 = 2396$

- Example (cont.)
  - encryption
    - the ciphertext is c = (435, 2396)
  - decryption
    - given  $c = (c_1, c_2)$ , we decrypt the message by computing  $c_2 \cdot (c_1^x)^{-1} \mod p$ :

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

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

- On parameter choice in ElGamal
  - if we use  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  or its subgroup
    - p should have at least 2000 bits for the discrete logarithm to be hard
  - if g is a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ 
    - p-1 should have at least one large prime factor
  - if g does not generate  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ 
    - we can use a subgroup of a smaller size
    - e.g., prime order q of length 224 bits is sufficient
  - the group doesn't have to be  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ 
    - other choices include groups defined over elliptic curves

- 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 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  $g^{xy}$

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- Alice computes it as  $(g^y)^x = g^{xy}$
- Bob computes it as  $(g^x)^y = g^{xy}$
- it is believed to be infeasible for an eavesdropper to compute  $g^{xy}$  given  $g^x$  and  $g^y$

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## **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  $xy = z \pmod{q}$

### **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

#### 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, but the construction the way it was described requires further changes