

Diffie–Hellman, discrete logarithm computation

Inria Nancy, France

Summer school CIMPA, Douala, Cameroon, July 2024

These slides at [https:](https://)

[//people.rennes.inria.fr/Aurore.Guillevic/talks/2024-07-Douala/24-07-Douala-DL.pdf](https://people.rennes.inria.fr/Aurore.Guillevic/talks/2024-07-Douala/24-07-Douala-DL.pdf)

Outline

Introduction on Diffie–Hellman and the Discrete Logarithm Problem

Computing discrete logarithms

- Generic algorithms of square root complexity

- Sub-exponential algorithms

- Sieving

- Coppersmith–Odlyzko–Schroeppel algorithm

- Number Field Sieve

Record computations: RSA-240 (decimal digits) and DL-795 (bits)

Attacks on real-world DL-based cryptosystems

- 2010 PS3 hacking (attack on ECDSA)

- The 2015 Weak Diffie–Hellman attack

- Weak keys in the 2019 Moscow internet voting system

- Discrete logs in finite fields \mathbb{F}_{2^n} and \mathbb{F}_{3^m}

Pairings

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Introduction: public-key cryptography

Introduced in 1976 (Diffie–Hellman, DH) and 1977 (Rivest–Shamir–Adleman, RSA)
Asymmetric means distinct public and private keys

- encryption with a public key
- decryption with a private key
- deducing the private key from the public key is a very hard problem

Two hard problems:

- Integer factorization (for RSA)
- Discrete logarithm computation in a finite group (for Diffie–Hellman)

Public-key encryption

Alice

Bob

Public-key encryption

Alice

public key PK_A

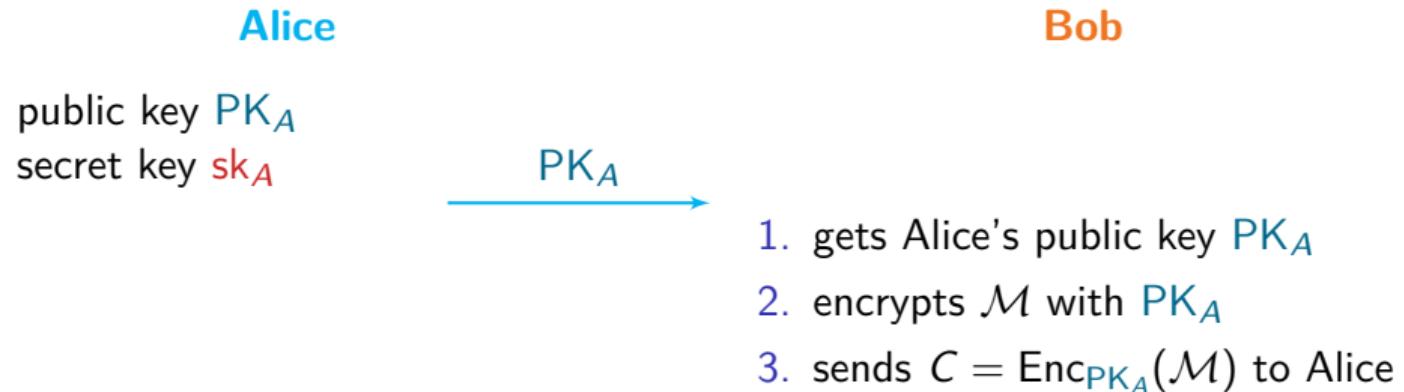
secret key sk_A

Bob

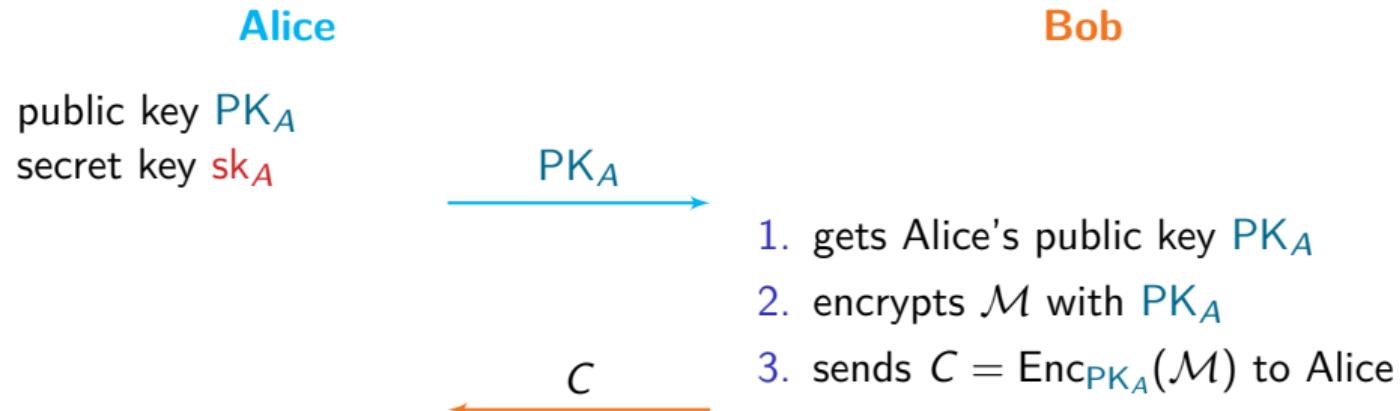
Public-key encryption



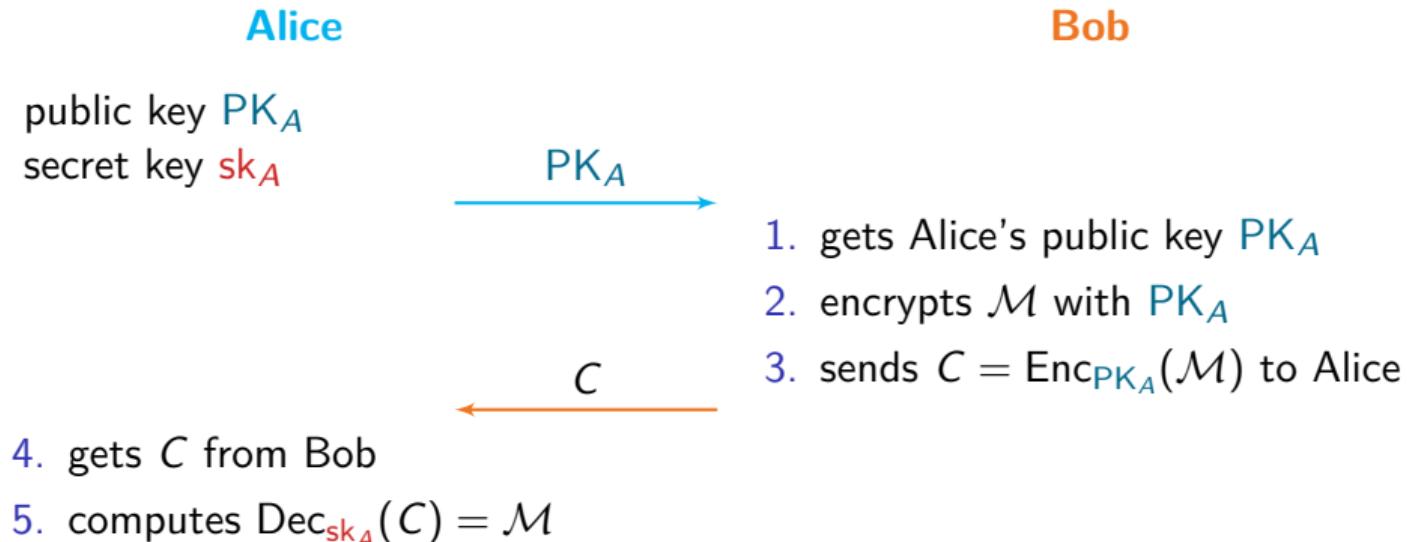
Public-key encryption



Public-key encryption



Public-key encryption



Discrete logarithm problem

\mathbf{G} multiplicative group of order q

g generator, $\mathbf{G} = \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{q-2}, g^{q-1}\}$

Given $h \in \mathbf{G}$, find integer $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, q - 1\}$ such that $h = g^x$.

Exponentiation easy: $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$

Discrete logarithm hard in well-chosen groups \mathbf{G}

Choice of group

Prime finite field $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ where p is a prime integer

Multiplicative group: $\mathbb{F}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$ (zero omitted)

Multiplication *modulo p*

Finite field $\mathbb{F}_{2^n} = \text{GF}(2^n)$, $\mathbb{F}_{3^m} = \text{GF}(3^m)$ for efficient arithmetic, now broken

Elliptic curves $E: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b/\mathbb{F}_p$, $E_a: y^2 + xy = x^3 + ax^2 + 1/\mathbb{F}_{2^n}$

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

Bob

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

Bob

public parameters

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

Diffie-Hellman key exchange

Alice

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

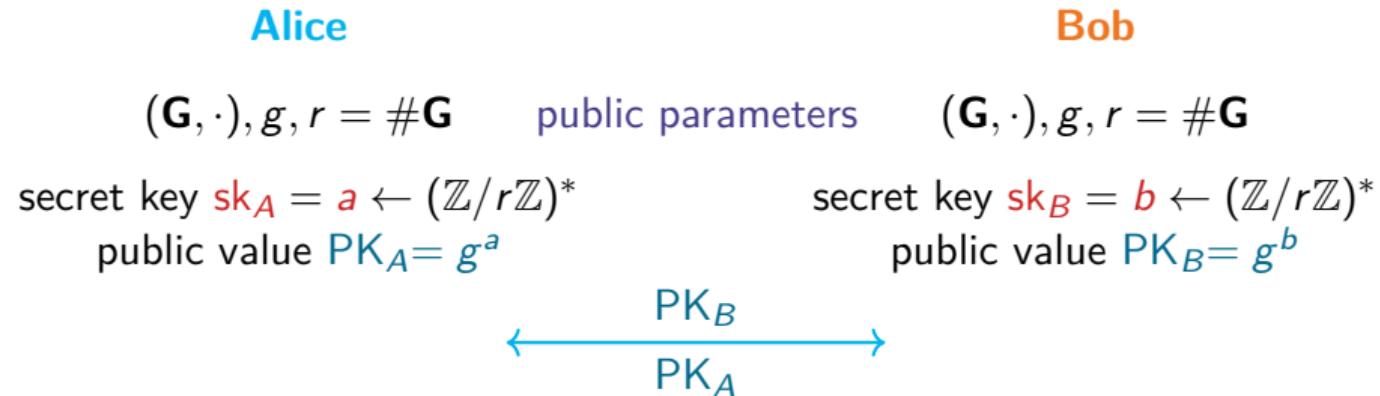
secret key $sk_A = a \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$
public value $PK_A = g^a$

Bob

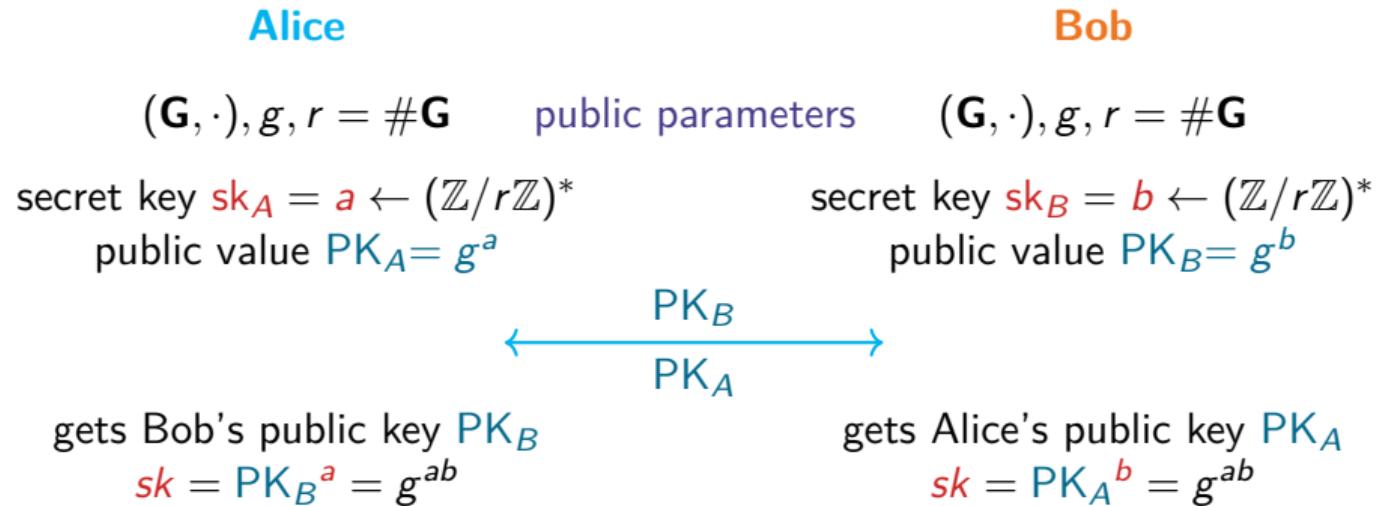
$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

secret key $sk_B = b \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$
public value $PK_B = g^b$

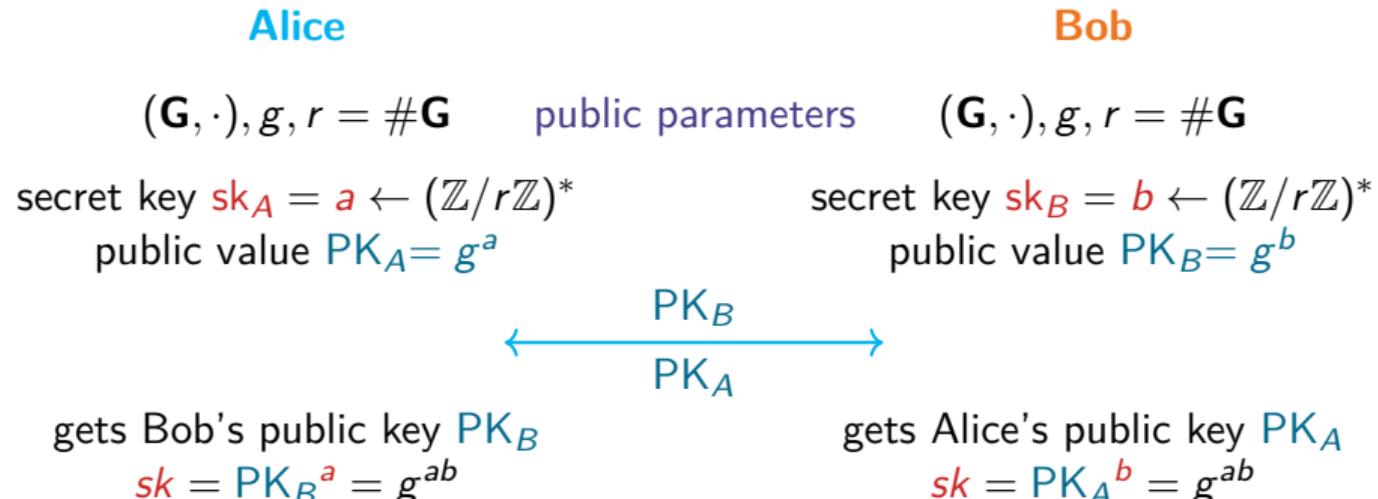
Diffie-Hellman key exchange



Diffie-Hellman key exchange



Diffie-Hellman key exchange



it works because $(g^a)^b = (g^b)^a = g^{ab}$

Signatures: ElGamal, Schnorr, DSA

With a group **G** of a finite field \mathbb{F}_p

- ElGamal signature scheme
- Schnorr signature, patented until February 2008
- Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

With a group **G** of an elliptic curve over a finite field

- ECDSA (elliptic curve DSA)
- EdDSA (Edwards curve DSA) since NIST FIPS 186-5 (Feb. 2023)

EIGamal encryption

Alice

Bob

EIGamal encryption

Alice

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

Bob

public parameters

$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$

ElGamal encryption

Alice

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

secret key $\text{sk}_A = a \leftarrow (\mathbb{Z}/r\mathbb{Z})^*$

public key $\text{PK}_A = g^a$

Bob

$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

EIGamal encryption

Alice

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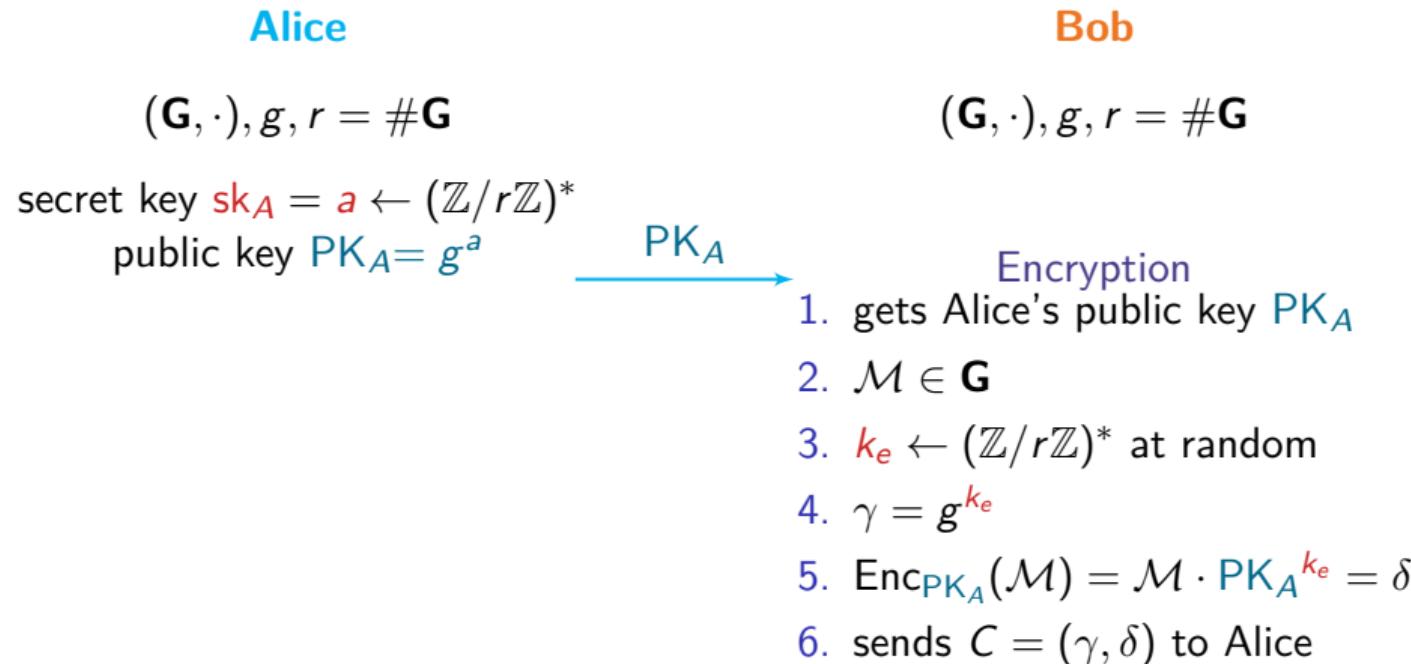
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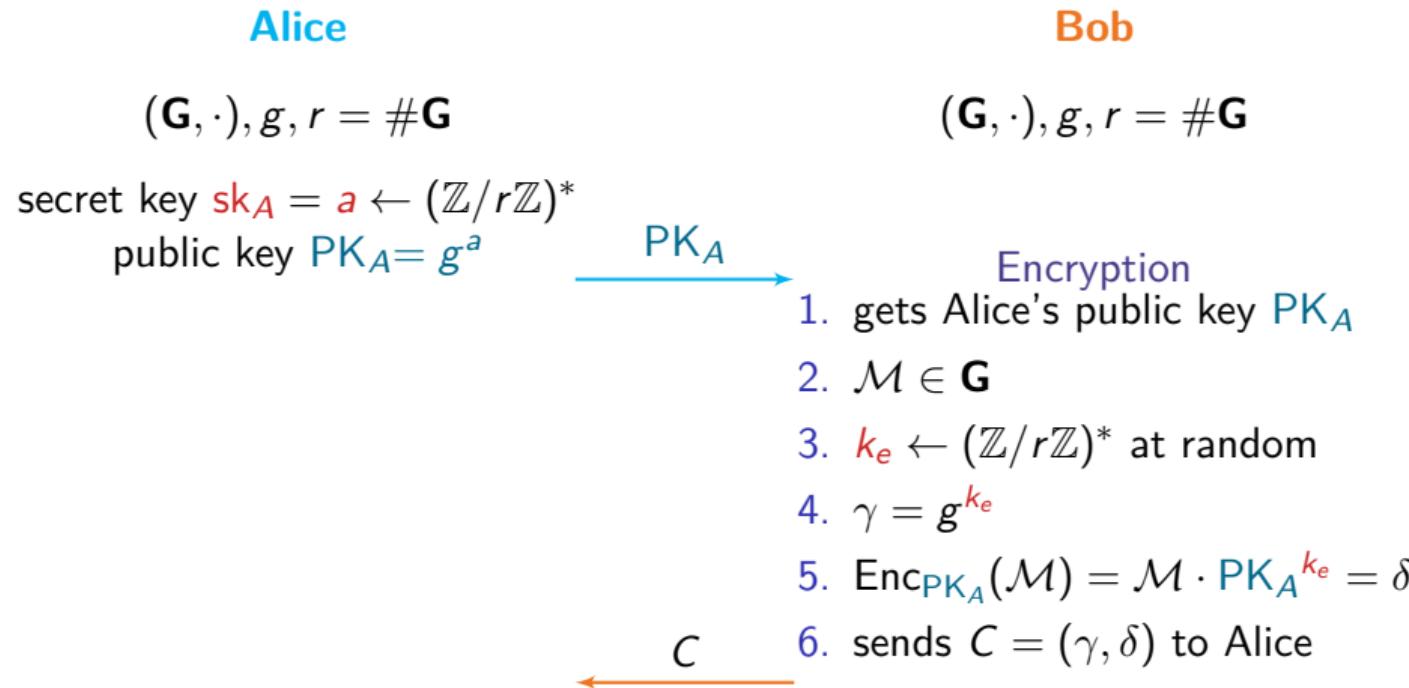
$$(\mathbf{G}, \cdot), g, r = \#\mathbf{G}$$

$\xrightarrow{PK_A}$

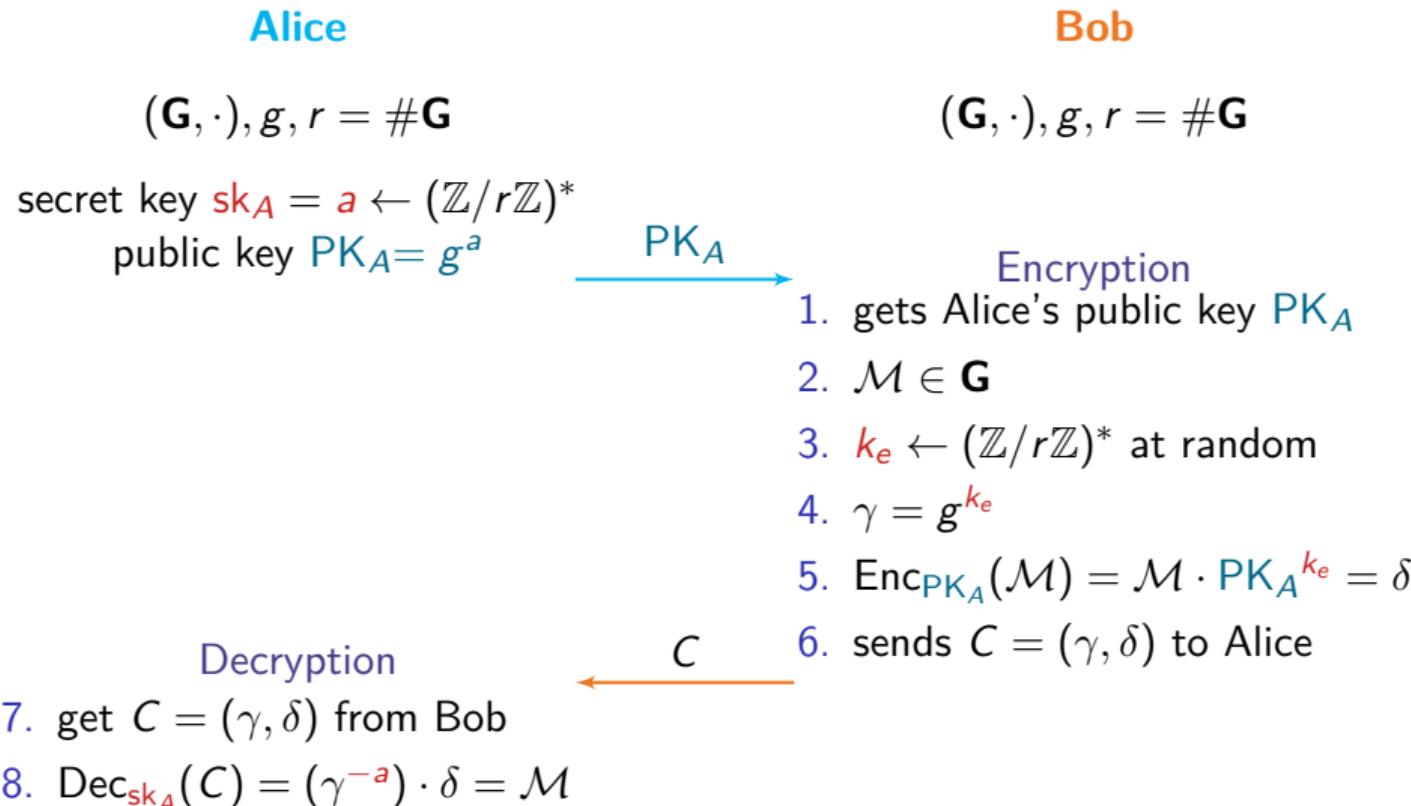
EIGamal encryption



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EIGamal encryption



Choosing key sizes

Symmetric ciphers (AES): key sizes are 128, 192 or 256 bits.

Perfect symmetric cipher: trying all keys of size n bits takes 2^n tests

→ **brute-force search**

perfect symmetric cipher with secret key in $[0, 2^n - 1]$, of n bits $\leftrightarrow n$ bits of security

For a Diffie-Hellman group \mathbf{G} over a prime field \mathbb{F}_p :

n bits of security \leftrightarrow the best (mathematical) attack to solve a DH instance in \mathbf{G} should take at least 2^n steps

- what is the fastest attack?
- how much time does it take with respect to the size $\#\mathbf{G}$ of \mathbf{G} and the representation of \mathbf{G} ?

Diffie-Hellman over a prime field has much larger key sizes compared to a symmetric cipher.

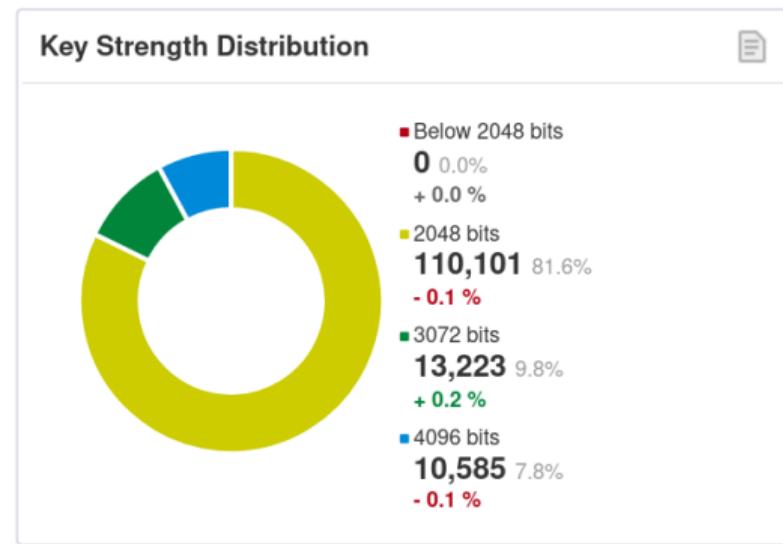
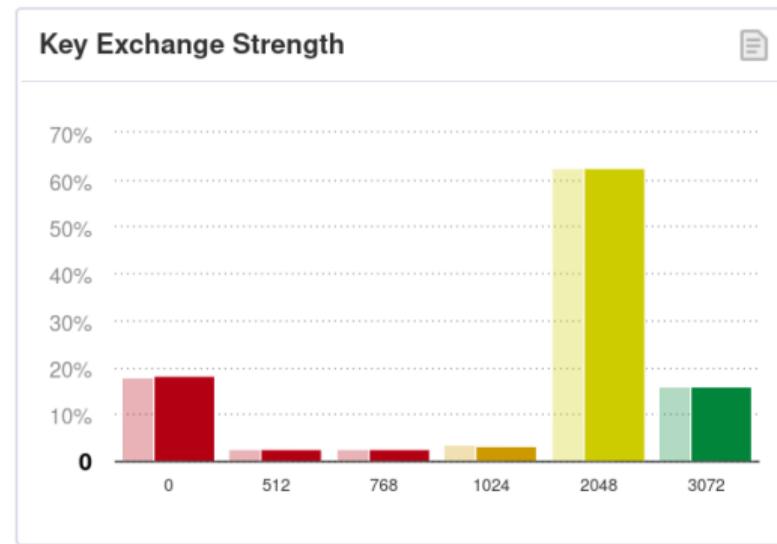
Cipher suite: a pair of symmetric and asymmetric ciphers offering the same level of security.

Examples

<https://www.lemonde.fr/>, https, security information →
TLS_ECDHE_RSA_WITH_AES_128_GCM_SHA256, 128 bits, TLS 1.2



<https://www.ssllabs.com/ssl-pulse/>



Particles

| n | 2^n | Examples |
|-----|------------------------|--|
| 32 | $2^{32} = 10^{9.6}$ | number of humans on Earth |
| 47 | $2^{47} = 10^{14.2}$ | distance Earth - Sun in millimeters ($149.6 \cdot 10^{12}$) number of operations in one day on a processor at 2 GHz |
| 56 | $2^{55.8} = 10^{16.8}$ | number of operations in one year on a processor at 2 GHz |
| 79 | $2^{79} = 10^{23.8}$ | Avogadro number: atoms of Carbon 12 in 1 mol |
| 82 | $2^{82.3} = 10^{24.8}$ | mass of Earth in kilograms |
| 100 | $2^{100} = 10^{30}$ | number of operations in $13.77 \cdot 10^9$ years (age of the universe) on a processor at 2 GHz |
| 155 | $2^{155} = 10^{46.7}$ | number of molecules of water on Earth |
| 256 | $2^{256} = 10^{77.1}$ | number of electrons in universe |

Courtesy Marine Minier

Boiling water

Universal Security; From bits and mips to pools, lakes – and beyond

Arjen Lenstra, Thorsten Kleinjung, and Emmanuel Thomé

<https://hal.inria.fr/hal-00925622>

- 2^{90} operations require enough energy to boil the lake of Genève
- 2^{114} operations: boiling all the water on Earth
- 2^{128} operations: boiling 16,000 planets like the Earth

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Asymmetric cryptography

Factorization (RSA cryptosystem)

Discrete logarithm problem (use in Diffie-Hellman, etc)

Given a finite cyclic group (\mathbf{G}, \cdot) , a generator g and $h \in \mathbf{G}$, compute x s.t. $h = g^x$.
→ can we invert the exponentiation function $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$?

Common choice of \mathbf{G} :

- prime finite field $\mathbb{F}_p = \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ (1976)
- characteristic 2 field \mathbb{F}_{2^n} (≈ 1979)
- elliptic curve $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ (1985)

Discrete log problem

How fast can we invert the exponentiation function $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$?

- $g \in G$ generator, \exists always a preimage $x \in \{1, \dots, \#G\}$
- naive search, try them all: $\#G$ tests
- $O(\sqrt{\#G})$ generic algorithms

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 - Shanks baby-step-giant-step (BSGS): $O(\sqrt{\#G})$, deterministic
 - random walk in G , cycle path finding algorithm in a connected graph (Floyd) → Pollard: $O(\sqrt{\#G})$, probabilistic
(the cycle path encodes the answer)
 - parallel search (parallel Pollard, Kangarous)

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- independent search in each distinct subgroup
+ Chinese remainder theorem (Pohlig-Hellman)

Discrete log problem

How fast can we invert the exponentiation function $(g, x) \mapsto g^x$?

- choose G of large prime order (no subgroup)
- complexity of inverting exponentiation in $O(\sqrt{\#G})$
- **security level 128 bits** means $\sqrt{\#G} \geq 2^{128}$
 - take $\#G = 2^{256}$
 - analogy with symmetric crypto, keylength 128 bits (16 bytes)

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Use additional structure of G if any.

Discrete log problem when $\mathbf{G} = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$

Index calculus algorithm [Western–Miller 68, Adleman 79],
prequel of the Number Field Sieve algorithm (NFS)

- p prime, $(p - 1)/2$ prime, $\mathbf{G} = (\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$, gen. g , target h

- get many multiplicative relations in \mathbf{G}

$$g^t = g_1^{e_1} g_2^{e_2} \cdots g_i^{e_i} \pmod{p}, \quad g, g_1, g_2, \dots, g_i \in \mathbf{G}$$

- find a relation $h \cdot g^s = g_1^{e'_1} g_2^{e'_2} \cdots g_i^{e'_i} \pmod{p}$

- take logarithm: linear relations

$$t = e_1 \log g_1 + e_2 \log g_2 + \dots + e_i \log g_i \pmod{p-1}$$

⋮

$$\log h = -s + e'_1 \log g_1 + e'_2 \log g_2 + \dots + e'_i \log g_i \pmod{p-1}$$

- solve a linear system

- get $x = \log h$

Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$: example

$p = 1109$, $r = (p - 1)/4 = 277$ prime

Smoothness bound $B = 13$

$\mathcal{F}_{13} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$ small primes up to B , $i = \#\mathcal{F}$

B -smooth integer: $n = \prod_{p_i \leq B} p_i^{e_i}$, p_i prime

is g^s smooth? $1 \leq s \leq 72$ is enough

$$\begin{array}{lll} g^1 = 2 = 2 & \begin{matrix} 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 11 & 13 \end{matrix} \\ g^{13} = 429 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 & \left[\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \right] & \cdot \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 13 \\ 16 \\ 21 \\ 44 \\ 72 \end{bmatrix} \\ g^{16} = 105 = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 & \rightarrow & \\ g^{21} = 33 = 3 \cdot 11 & & \\ g^{44} = 1029 = 3 \cdot 7^3 & & \\ g^{72} = 325 = 5^2 \cdot 13 & & \end{array}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269] \text{ mod } 277$$

$\rightarrow \log_g 7 = 34 \text{ mod } 277$, that is, $(g^{34})^4 = 7^4$

$g^{34} = 7u$ and $u^4 = 1$

Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$: example

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269] \bmod 277$$

$$\text{subgroup of order 4: } g_4 = g^{(p-1)/4}$$

$$\{1, g_4, g_4^2, g_4^3\} = \{1, 354, 1108, 755\}$$

Pohlig-Hellman:

$$3/g^{219} = 1 = 1 \Rightarrow \log_g 3 = = 219$$

$$5/g^{40} = 1108 = -1 \Rightarrow \log_g 5 = 40 + (p-1)/2 = 594$$

$$7/g^{34} = 354 = g_4 \Rightarrow \log_g 7 = 34 + (p-1)/4 = 311$$

$$11/g^{79} = 755 = g_4^3 \Rightarrow \log_g 11 = 79 + 3(p-1)/4 = 910$$

$$13/g^{269} = 755 = g_4^3 \Rightarrow \log_g 13 = 269 + 3(p-1)/4 = 1100$$

$$\mathbf{v} = [1, 219, 594, 311, 910, 1100] \bmod p-1$$

Target $h = 777$

$$g^{10} \cdot 777 = 495 = 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 11 \bmod p$$

$$\log_2 777 = -10 + 2 \log_g 3 + \log_g 5 + \log_g 11 = 824 \bmod p-1$$

$$g^{824} = 777$$

Index calculus in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$: example

Trick

Multiplicative relations over the **integers**

$g_1, g_2, \dots, g_i \longleftrightarrow$ small prime integers

Smooth integers $n = \prod_{p_i \leq B} p_i^{e_i}$ are quite common \rightarrow it works

Complexity $e^{\sqrt{(2+o(1))(\log p)(\log \log p)}}$ (Pomerance 87)

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Improvements in the 80's, 90's:

- Sieve (faster relation collection)
- Smaller integers to factor
- Multiplicative relations in **number fields**
- Better **sparse linear algebra**
- Independent targets h

Sieving: Detect smooth numbers without factoring

Eratosthenes sieve

Array $T[1 \dots n - 1]$ of integers from 2 up to n

At iteration i , each non-marked integer in $T[1 \dots i]$ is prime

For each non-marked $p_i = T[i]$ starting with $p_1 = T[1] = 2$:

Mark as composite all multiples $T[i + kp_i]$, $1 \leq k \leq (n - i)/p_i$

[2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30]

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Major improvement

Pomerance's **Quadratic Sieve** for factoring integers:

test for smoothness integers $|m| \leq A\sqrt{N}$ for some small bound A .

\implies reduce the size of the integers from N to the much smaller $A\sqrt{N}$

No direct equivalent for Discrete Logarithm computation

- 1985: ElGamal, DL in $GF(p^2)$ with two quadratic number fields, Inspired COS:
- 1986: Coppersmith–Odlyzko–Schroeppel, DL in $GF(p)$ of complexity like the quadratic sieve

Number Field: Toy example with $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

1986: Coppersmith–Odlyzko–Schroeppel, DL in $\text{GF}(p)$

If $p = 1 \pmod 4$, $\exists U, V$ s.t. $p = U^2 + V^2$

and $|U|, |V| < \sqrt{p}$

$U/V \equiv m \pmod p$ and $m^2 + 1 = 0 \pmod p$

Define a map from $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ to $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$

$$\phi: \mathbb{Z}[i] \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$$

$$i \mapsto m \pmod p \text{ where } m = U/V, \quad m^2 + 1 = 0 \pmod p$$

ring homomorphism $\phi(a + bi) = a + bm$

$$\underbrace{\phi(a + bi)}_{\substack{\text{factor in} \\ \mathbb{Z}[i]}} = a + bm = (a + b \underbrace{U/V}_{=m}) = (\underbrace{aV + bU}_{\substack{\text{factor in} \\ \mathbb{Z}}}) V^{-1} \pmod p$$

Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$p = 1109 = 1 \bmod 4$, $r = (p - 1)/4 = 277$ prime

$$p = 22^2 + 25^2$$

$\max(|a|, |b|) = A = 20$, $B = 13$ smoothness bound

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Rational side

$\mathcal{F}_{\text{rat}} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$ primes up to B

$$g(x) = Vx - U$$

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Rational side

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{rat}} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\} \text{ primes up to } B$$

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Algebraic side: think about the complex number in \mathbb{C}

$$-i(1+i)^2 = 2, (2+i)(2-i) = 5, (2+3i)(2-3i) = 13$$

$$\mathcal{F}_{\text{alg}} = \{1+i, 2+i, 2-i, 2+3i, 2-3i\}$$

“primes” of norm up to B

$$f(x) = x^2 + 1$$

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Units

$$\mathcal{U}_{\text{alg}} = \{-1, i, -i\}$$

Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

$$p = 1109$$

$$(a, b) = (-4, 7),$$

$$\text{Norm}(-4 + 7i) = (-4)^2 + 7^2 = 65 = 5 \cdot 13$$

In $\mathbb{Z}[i]$,

- $5 = (2 + i)(2 - i)$
- $13 = (2 + 3i)(2 - 3i)$

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We obtain $i(2 - i)(2 + 3i) = -4 + 7i$

$$i \leftrightarrow m = 22/25 = 755 \bmod p$$

$$m(2 - m)(2 + 3m) = 845 \bmod p$$

$$-4 + 7m = 845 \bmod p$$

$$(-4 \cdot 25 + 7 \cdot 22)/25 = 845 \bmod p$$

Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

| $a + bi$ | $aV + bU = \text{factor in } \mathbb{Z}$ | $a^2 + b^2$ | factor in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$ |
|-------------|--|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| $-17 + 19i$ | $-7 = -7$ | $650 = 2 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 13$ | $i(1+i)(2+i)^2(2-3i)$ |
| $-11 + 2i$ | $-231 = -3 \cdot 7 \cdot 11$ | $125 = 5^3$ | $i(2+i)^3$ |
| $-6 + 17i$ | $224 = 2^5 \cdot 7$ | $325 = 5^2 \cdot 13$ | $(2+i)^2(2+3i)$ |
| $-4 + 7i$ | $54 = 2 \cdot 3^3$ | $65 = 5 \cdot 13$ | $i(2-i)(2+3i)$ |
| $-3 + 4i$ | $13 = 13$ | $25 = 5^2$ | $-(2-i)^2$ |
| $-2 + i$ | $-28 = -2^2 \cdot 7$ | $5 = 5$ | $-(2-i)$ |
| $-2 + 3i$ | $16 = 2^4$ | $13 = 13$ | $-(2-3i)$ |
| $-2 + 11i$ | $192 = 2^6 \cdot 3$ | $125 = 5^3$ | $-(2-i)^3$ |
| $-1 + i$ | $-3 = -3$ | $2 = 2$ | $i(1+i)$ |
| i | $22 = 2 \cdot 11$ | $1 = 1$ | i |
| $1 + 3i$ | $91 = 7 \cdot 13$ | $10 = 2 \cdot 5$ | $(1+i)(2+i)$ |
| $1 + 5i$ | $135 = 3^3 \cdot 5$ | $26 = 2 \cdot 13$ | $i(1+i)(2-3i)$ |
| $2 + i$ | $72 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2$ | $5 = 5$ | $(2+i)$ |
| $5 + i$ | $147 = 3 \cdot 7^2$ | $26 = 2 \cdot 13$ | $-i(1+i)(2+3i)$ |

Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$: Matrix

Build the matrix of relations:

- one row per (a, b) pair s.t. both norms are smooth
- one column per prime of \mathcal{F}_{rat}
- one column for $1/V$
- one column per prime ideal of \mathcal{F}_{alg}
- one column per unit $(-1, i)$
- store the exponents

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 5 & 7 & 11 & 13 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{}} & -1 & i & \color{orange}{1+i} & \color{red}{2+i} & \color{blue}{2-i} & \color{red}{2+3i} & \color{blue}{2-3i} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 6 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \quad 3 \quad 5 \quad 7 \quad 11 \quad 13 \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{v}} \quad -1 \quad i \quad \textcolor{orange}{1+i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+3i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-3i}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} & & & & 1 & 2 \\ & 1 & & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 2 & & 1 \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & & \\ 5 & & 1 & & 1 & & & 2 & 1 & \\ 1 & 3 & & & 1 & & 1 & & 1 & 1 \\ & & 1 & 1 & 1 & & & 2 & & \\ 2 & & 1 & & 1 & & & 1 & & \\ 4 & & & & 1 & 1 & & & & 1 \\ 6 & 1 & & & 1 & 1 & & 3 & & \\ 1 & & & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 & & & \\ & & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 & 1 & & \\ 3 & 1 & & & 1 & & 1 & 1 & & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & & & 1 & & & 1 & & \\ 1 & 2 & & & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2 \quad 3 \quad 5 \quad 7 \quad 11 \quad 13 \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{v}} \quad -1 \quad i \quad \textcolor{orange}{1+i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-i} \quad \textcolor{red}{2+3i} \quad \textcolor{blue}{2-3i}$$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} & & & -1-2 & & \\ & 1 & & 1-1-1-1-2 & & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1-1-1 & -3 & \\ 5 & 1 & & 1 & -2 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & & 1 & -1 & -1-1 \\ & & 1 & 1-1 & & -2 \\ 2 & & 1 & 1 & & -1 \\ 4 & & & 1-1 & & -1 \\ 6 & 1 & & 1-1 & & -3 \\ 1 & & & 1-1-1-1 & & \\ 1 & & 1 & 1 & -1 & \\ & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1-1 & \\ 3 & 1 & & 1 & -1-1 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & & 1 & -1 & \\ 1 & 2 & & 1-1-1-1 & & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Example in $\mathbb{Z}[i]$

Right kernel $M \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0 \bmod (p-1)/4 = 277$:

$$\mathbf{x} = (\underbrace{1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269}_{\text{rational side}}, \underbrace{197}_{1/V}, \underbrace{0, 0}_{\text{units}}, \underbrace{139, 84, 233, 68, 201}_{\text{algebraic side}})$$

Logarithms (in some basis)

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Logarithms (in some basis)

Rational side: logarithms of $\{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}$ in basis 2

$$\mathbf{x} = [1, 219, 40, 34, 79, 269] \bmod 277$$

→ order 4 subgroup

$$\mathbf{v} = [1, 219, 594, 311, 910, 1100] \bmod p-1$$

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Target 314, generator $g = 2$

$$314 = -20/7 \bmod p = -2^2 \cdot 5/7$$

$$\begin{aligned}\log_g 314 &= \log_g -1 + 2 \log_g 2 + \log_g 5 - \log_g 7 \\ &= (p-1)/2 + 2 + 594 - 311 = 839 \bmod p-1\end{aligned}$$

$$2^{839} = 314 \bmod p$$

Number Field Sieve

Since 1993 (Gordon, Schirokauer):

$$L_p(1/3, c) = e^{(c+o(1))(\log p)^{1/3}(\log \log p)^{2/3}}$$

- polynomial selection
- **relation collection** $L_p(1/3, 1.923)$
sieve to enumerate efficiently (a, b) pairs
- **sparse linear algebra** $L_p(1/3, 1.923)$
compute right kernel mod prime ℓ , block-Wiedemann alg.
- individual discrete logarithm

Choosing key sizes

For the Discrete Log problem in \mathbb{F}_p of size $\log_2(p)$ bits, \mathbf{G} of order q :

n bits of security \leftrightarrow the best (mathematical) attack should take at least 2^n steps

- fastest DL computation with generic algorithms: \sqrt{q} , q prime, divides $(p - 1)/2$
- fastest DL computation in \mathbb{F}_p : with the Number Field Sieve algorithm
- Complexity: $\exp\left(\sqrt[3]{(64/9+o(1))(\ln p)(\ln \ln p)^2}\right)$
- $+o(1)$ not known
- $\exp\left(\sqrt[3]{(64/9+0)(\ln p_{\text{DL-795}})(\ln \ln p_{\text{DL-795}})^2}\right) = 2^{77.68}$
- DL-795 in $2^{67.51}$ operations $\rightarrow 2^{67.51}/2^{77.68} = 2^{-10.17}$

Replace unknown $+o(1)$ in the $\exp()$ by a global scaling factor $2^{-10.17} \cdot \exp()$
(A. Lenstra, Verheul, Asiacrypt'01)

This is a [wrong](#) approximation: see Le Gluher PhD thesis [[LG21](#)]

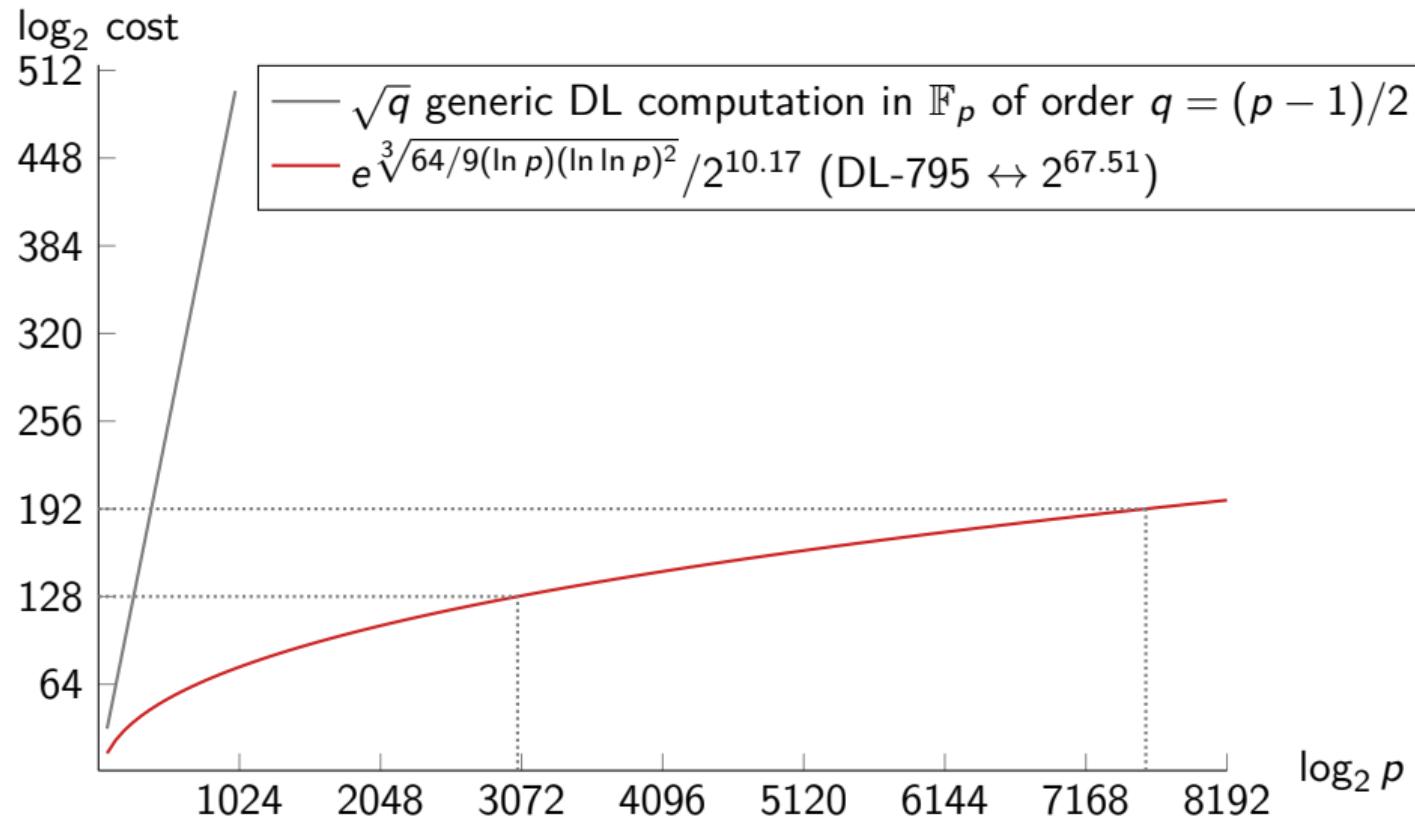


Aude Le Gluher.

Symbolic Computation and Complexity Analyses for Number Theory and Cryptography.

Phd thesis, Université de Lorraine, Nancy, France, December 2021.

<https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/tel-03564208>.



DL-795: 3177 core-years, Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)
 $\approx 3177 \cdot 365.25 \cdot 24 \cdot 60 \cdot 60 \cdot 2.1 \cdot 10^9 \approx 2^{67.51}$

Nowadays' method: the Number Field Sieve

- developed in the 80's and 90's
- reduce the size of the numbers to be factored from $A_1\sqrt{p}$ (COS) to $A_2^d \sqrt[d]{p}$ for a smaller $A_2 < A_1$ and $d \in \{3, 4, 5, 6\}$
- two huge steps: collecting relations, solving a large sparse system



Kevin S. McCurley.

The discrete logarithm problem.

In Carl Pomerance, editor, *Cryptology and Computational Number Theory*, volume 42 of *Proceedings of Symposia in Applied Mathematics*, pages 49–74. AMS, 1990.

<https://bookstore.ams.org/psapm-42/>,

<http://www.mccurley.org/papers/dlog.pdf>.

The development of the NFS algorithm for DL

1984 (Coppersmith: DL in small characteristic is easier, record in $\mathbb{F}_{2^{127}}$)

1985 ElGamal: Discrete logarithms in $GF(p^2)$ with quadratic number fields

1986 Coppersmith, Odlyzko, Schroeppel:

DL computation in a prime field \mathbb{F}_p with a quadratic number field (Gaussian integers)

- over the period: improvements for integer factorization

1993 Gordon. Discrete Logarithms in $GF(p)$ using the Number Field Sieve.



Arjen K. Lenstra and Hendrik W. Lenstra Jr., editors.

The development of the number field sieve, volume 1554 of *Lect. Note. Math.*. Springer, 1993.

<http://doi.org/10.1007/BFb0091534>

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Record computations: RSA-240 (decimal digits) and DL-795 (bits)

Attacks on real-world DL-based cryptosystems

- 2010 PS3 hacking (attack on ECDSA)

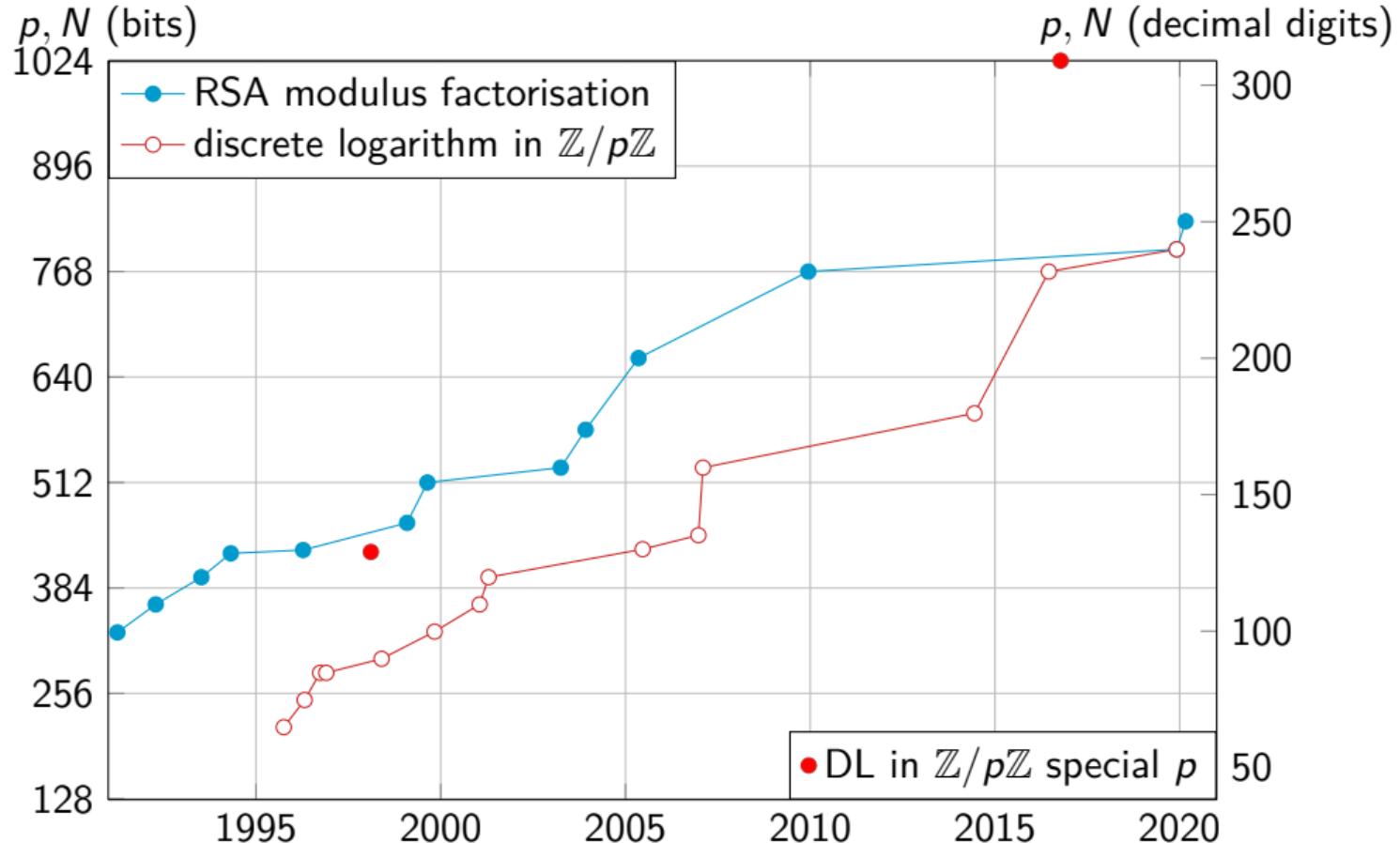
- The 2015 Weak Diffie–Hellman attack

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Pairings

Record computations



Latest record computations

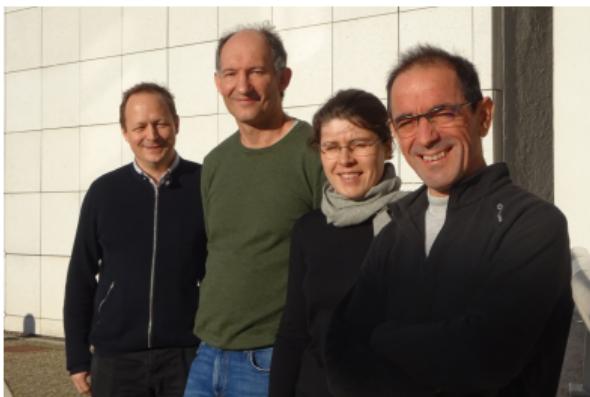
 Fabrice Boudot, Pierrick Gaudry, Aurore Guillevic, Nadia Heninger, Emmanuel Thomé, and Paul Zimmermann.

Comparing the difficulty of factorization and discrete logarithm: A 240-digit experiment.

In Daniele Micciancio and Thomas Ristenpart, eds., *CRYPTO 2020, Part II*, vol. 12171 of *LNCS*, pp. 62–91. Springer, August 2020.

Discrete logarithm computation in a 795-bit (240 dd) prime field and factorization of RSA-240 (795 bits) in December 2019, RSA-250 (829 bits) in February 2020

Video at Crypto'2020: <https://youtube.com/watch?v=Qk207A4H7kU>



Emmanuel, Pierrick,
Aurore, Paul in Nancy.
Not on the picture:
Fabrice, Nadia.

Latest record computation: DL 795 bits (240 dd)

RSA-240 = 124620366781718784065835044608106590434820374651678805754818
788883289666801188210855036039570272508747509864768438458621
054865537970253930571891217684318286362846948405301614416430
468066875699415246993185704183030512549594371372159029236099,
 p = NextSafePrime($N_{\text{RSA-240}}$) = $N_{\text{RSA-240}} + 49204$
 q = $(p - 1)/2$ is prime

hardware:

Intel Xeon Gold 6130 processors, 2 CPUs, 16 physical cores/CPU, at 2.10 GHz

Discrete Logarithm 795 bits, 240 dd

$$p = N + 49204, \ell = (p - 1)/2 \text{ prime}$$

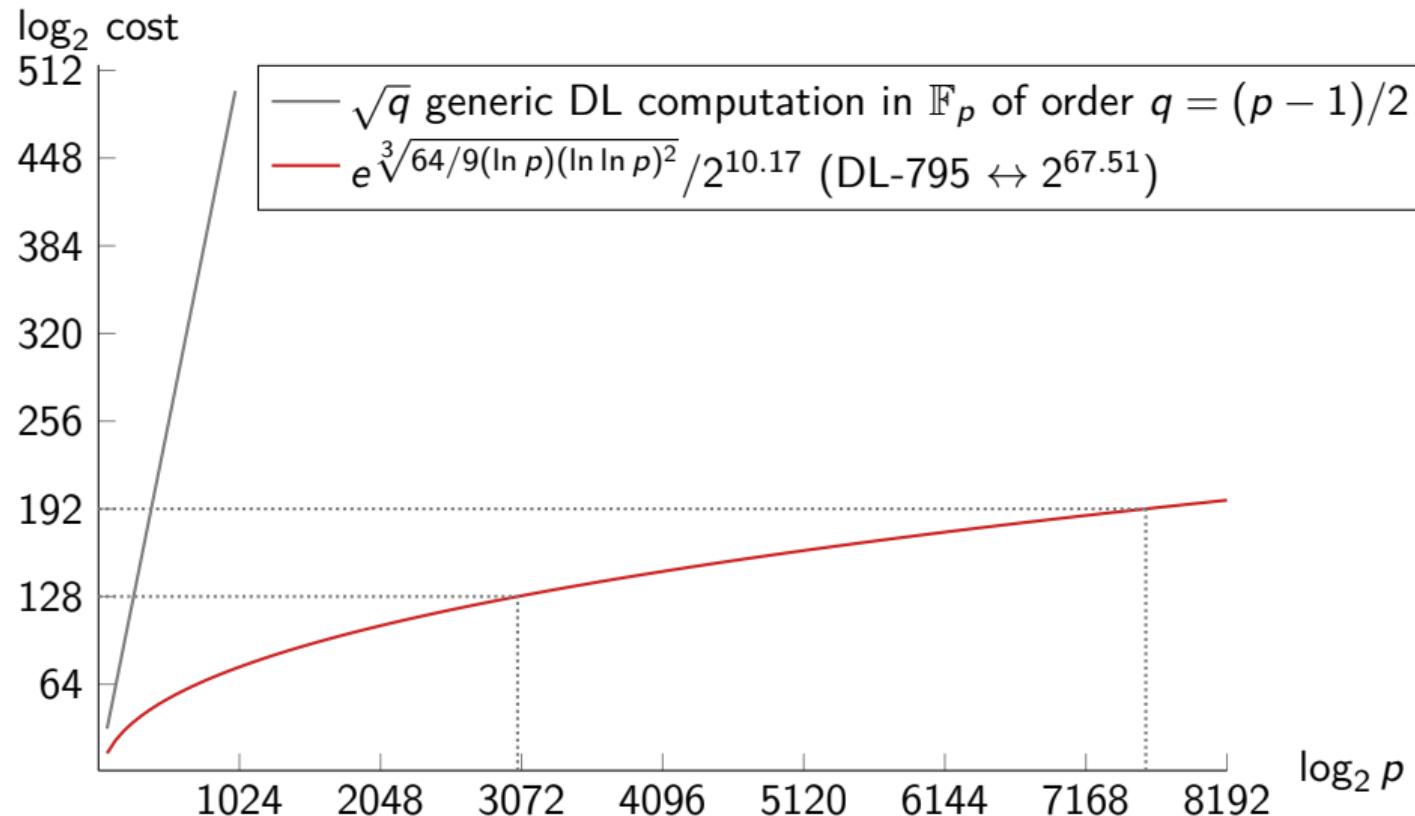
$$f_1 = 39x^4 + 126x^3 + x^2 + 62x + 120$$

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 = & 286512172700675411986966846394359924874576536408786368056 x^3 \\ & + 24908820300715766136475115982439735516581888603817255539890 x^2 \\ & - 18763697560013016564403953928327121035580409459944854652737 x \\ & - 236610408827000256250190838220824122997878994595785432202599 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Res}(f_0, f_1) = -540p$$

More balanced integers

Smaller matrix but kernel modulo large prime ℓ



DL-795: 3177 core-years, Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)
 $\approx 3177 \cdot 365.25 \cdot 24 \cdot 60 \cdot 60 \cdot 2.1 \cdot 10^9 \approx 2^{67.51}$

Breaking the previous record: Why?

- Record computations needed for key-size recommendations
- Open-source software Cado-NFS
- Motivation to improve all the steps
- Testing folklore ideas competitive only for huge sizes
(composite special-q, two algebraic sides)
- Exploits improvements of ECM (Bouvier–Imbert PKC'2020)
- Scaling the code for larger sizes improves the running-time on smaller sizes

The CADO-NFS software

Record computations with the **CADO-NFS** software.

- Important software development effort since 2007.
- 250k lines of C/C++ code, 60k for relation collection only.
- Significant improvements since 2016.
 - improved parallelism: strive to get rid of scheduling bubbles;
 - versatility: large freedom in parameter selection;
 - prediction of behaviour and yield: essential for tuning.
- Open source (LGPL), open development model ([gitlab](#)).
Our results can be reproduced.

Relation collection looks like

Relations, matrix size, core-years timings

| | RSA-240 | DLP-240 |
|--|--|--|
| polynomial selection $\deg f_0, \deg f_1$ | 76 core-years 1, 6 | 152 core-years 3, 4 |
| relation collection | 794 core-years | 2400 core-years |
| raw relations | 8 936 812 502 | 3 824 340 698 |
| unique relations | 6 011 911 051 | 2 380 725 637 |
| filtering | days | days |
| after singleton removal | $2\ 603\ 459\ 110 \times 2\ 383\ 461\ 671$ | $1\ 304\ 822\ 186 \times 1\ 000\ 258\ 769$ |
| after clique removal | $1\ 175\ 353\ 278 \times 1\ 175\ 353\ 118$ | $149\ 898\ 095 \times 149\ 898\ 092$ |
| after merge | 282M rows, density 200 | 36M rows, density 253 |
| linear algebra | 83 core-years | 625 core-years |
| characters, sqrt, ind log | days | days |
| total | 953 core-years $\approx 2^{65.77}$ op. | 3177 core-years $\approx 2^{67.51}$ op. |

Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPUs as a reference (2.1GHz)

RSA-240 and DL-795 record computations

- Parameterization strategies
- Extensive simulation framework for parameter choices
- Implementation scales well

RSA-240 and DL-795 record computations

- Parameterization strategies
- Extensive simulation framework for parameter choices
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Comparisons:

- Comparing RSA-240 to 10 years old previous record not meaningful
- Comparing DL-795 to previous record (DLP-768, 232 digits, 2016):
On **identical hardware**, our DLP-795 computation would have taken
25% less time than the 232-digits computation.
- Finite field DLP is not **much** harder than integer factoring.

choosing RSA modulus keysizes

- 512 bits: factorization in 7.5 h at cost \$100 on Amazon EC2 RSA_EXPORT ciphersuite in SSL/TLS → FREAK attack (2015)
- 768 bits (232 dd): 2009
- 795 bits (240 dd): 2019
- 829 bits (250 dd): 2020
- 1024 bits: $\sim 2^{75}$ op. to factor, to be avoided
- 2048 bits: $\sim 2^{105}$, was standard until 2020 (ANSSI)
- 3072 bits: $\sim 2^{128}$, standard size \iff 256-bit elliptic curves
- 4096 bits: $\sim 2^{145}$, high security

RSA and the quantum computer

1994: Peter Shor, algorithm for integer factorization with a quantum computer

Factorization of a n -bit integer requires a perfect quantum computer with $2n$ qubits (quantum bits)

Quantum computer extremely hard to build

Record computation in 2018: $4\ 088\ 459 = 2017 \times 2027$

RSA-1024 (bits) will be factored before a quantum computer become competitive.

Summary of RSA best practices

Use elliptic curve cryptography.

If that's not an option:

- Choose RSA modulus N at least 2048 bits, preferably 3072 bits.
- Use a good random number generator to generate primes.
- Use a secure, randomized padding scheme.

Conclusion

Slides at <https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/teaching/>

Future Milestones in the forthcoming decades: RSA-896, RSA-1024?

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Attacks on discrete-logarithm based cryptosystems

- Sony Play-Station 3 (PS3) hacking, Chaos Communication Congress 2010
- Weak DH attack, 2015 <https://weakdh.org/>
- Weak keys in the Moscow internet voting system, 2019
<https://members.loria.fr/PGaudry/moscow/>

Sony Play-Station 3 (PS3) hacking

- Revealed in 2010 at **Chaos Communication Congress** in Germany
- Problem of bad randomness in the **ephemeral key** of the ECDSA signature:
Same one used to sign everything
- With two valid signatures, the attackers can deduce Sony's private key
then forge valid signatures themselves for anything

Domain parameters

- field size $q = p$ an odd prime or $q = 2^m$ a binary field
- elliptic curve parameters: curve type (Koblitz, binary, short Weierstrass, Montgomery), curve coefficients a, b ,
- group \mathbf{G} parameters: prime order $n = \#\mathbf{G}$, curve cofactor h ,
 $G = (x_G, y_G)$ a generator of order n , optional domain parameter seed

Key pair (d, P) generation, secret d and public P

- generate a private secret random $0 < d < n$ (in the scalar field)
- compute the public key: curve point $P = [d]G$

ECDSA signature of a message m , under the private key d

- generate a new secret random ephemeral key $k \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n - 1\}$
- compute its inverse $k^{-1} \bmod n$
- compute $R = [k]G = (x_R, y_R)$ and set $r = x_R$
- compute the signature (r, s) with

$$s = k^{-1} \cdot (H(m) + r \cdot d) \bmod n$$

- securely erase k and k^{-1}

Moreover the standard specifies how to generate random ephemeral keys k_i and how to select a secure cryptographic hash function H .

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Verify (r, s) : with $P = [d]G$, check that Q has $x_Q = r \bmod n$, with

$$\begin{aligned} Q &= [s^{-1} \cdot H(m) \bmod n]G + [s^{-1} \cdot r \bmod n]P = (x_Q, y_Q) \\ &= [s^{-1}(H(m) + r \cdot d)]G = ? R = [k]G \end{aligned}$$

PS3 attack (2010)

Same ephemeral key k used to sign different messages, say m_1, m_2

- $(r, s_1 = k^{-1} \cdot (H(m_1) + r \cdot d) \bmod n)$
- $(r, s_2 = k^{-1} \cdot (H(m_2) + r \cdot d) \bmod n)$

Recover the private key d

- compute the difference $s_1 - s_2 = k^{-1} \cdot (H(m_1) - H(m_2)) \bmod n$
- the secret part $r \cdot d$ vanished!
- publicly compute $H(m_1) - H(m_2) \bmod n$ and recover the ephemeral secret key

$$k = (s_1 - s_2)^{-1} \cdot (H(m_1) - H(m_2)) \bmod n$$

- from (r, s_1) and k , recover $d = (k \cdot s_1 - H(m_1)) \cdot r^{-1} \bmod n$

Knowing the manufacturer's private key d allows anyone to sign any non-legitimate documents (software, games for the PS3). The signature will be accepted as valid by any verifier.

Weak Diffie–Hellman and the Logjam attack (2015)

<https://weakdh.org/>

- inspired by the **FREAK** attack
- Active TLS MITM (Malicious Intruder in The Middle) downgrade attack
- Force use of **DHE_EXPORT** cipher suite (Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange) with 512-bit prime p
- precomputation of a huge database of the discrete logarithms of a **factor basis** so as to get a **targeted individual discrete log** in live

TLS 1.2 Handshake reference and tutorial:

<https://datatracker.ietf.org/doc/html/rfc5246>

<https://tlseminar.github.io/first-few-milliseconds/>

What makes the attack possible?

MITM

- No signature of the cipher suite chosen (DHE vs DHE_EXPORT)
- The attacker can intercept the communication
- the attacker convinces the server that the browser wants DHE_EXPORT
- the attacker answers back DHE and fools the browser with the server's DHE_EXPORT 512-bit prime p
- the attack works because the browser does not check the keysizes (512 bits) of the server's parameters
- real-time discrete log computation to hack the MACs in the Finished messages

Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2

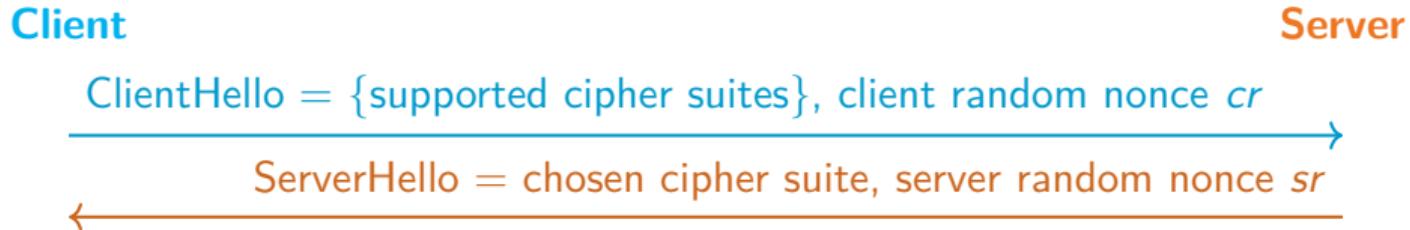
Client

Server

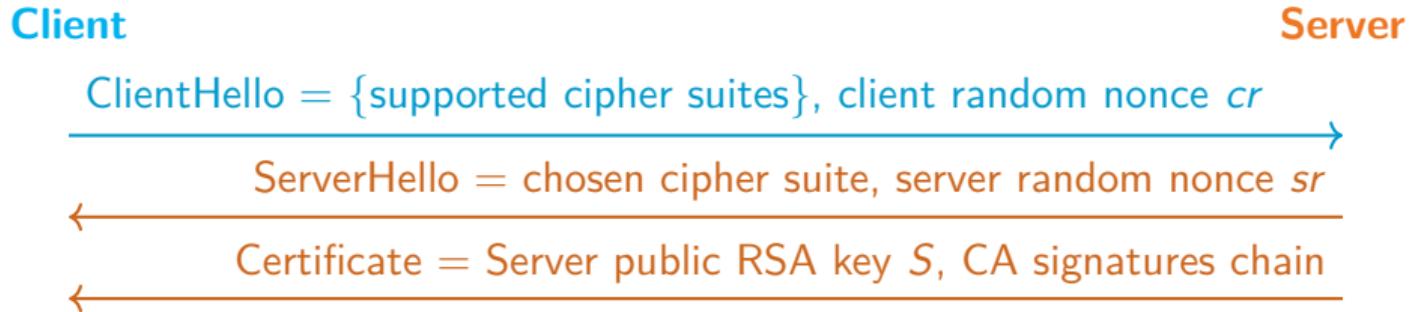
ClientHello = {supported cipher suites}, client random nonce cr



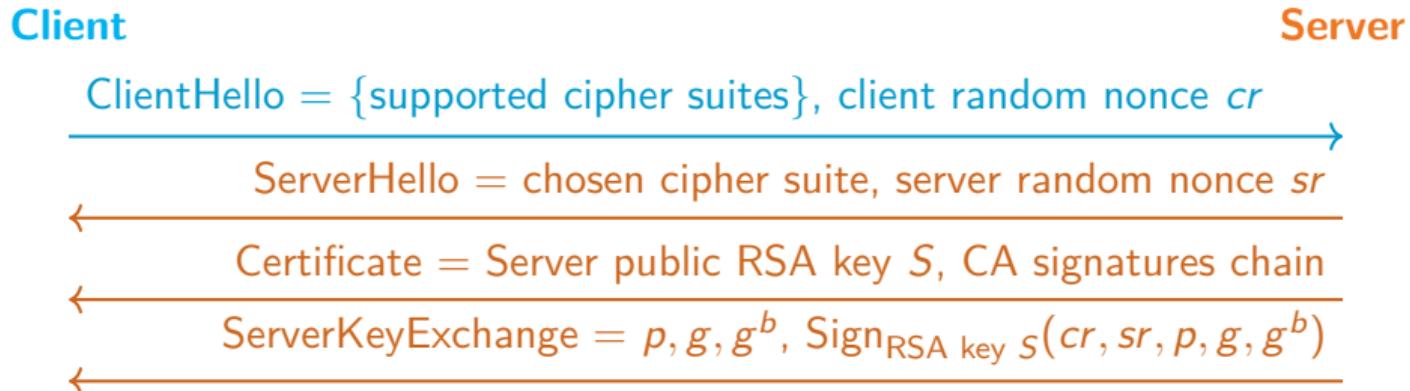
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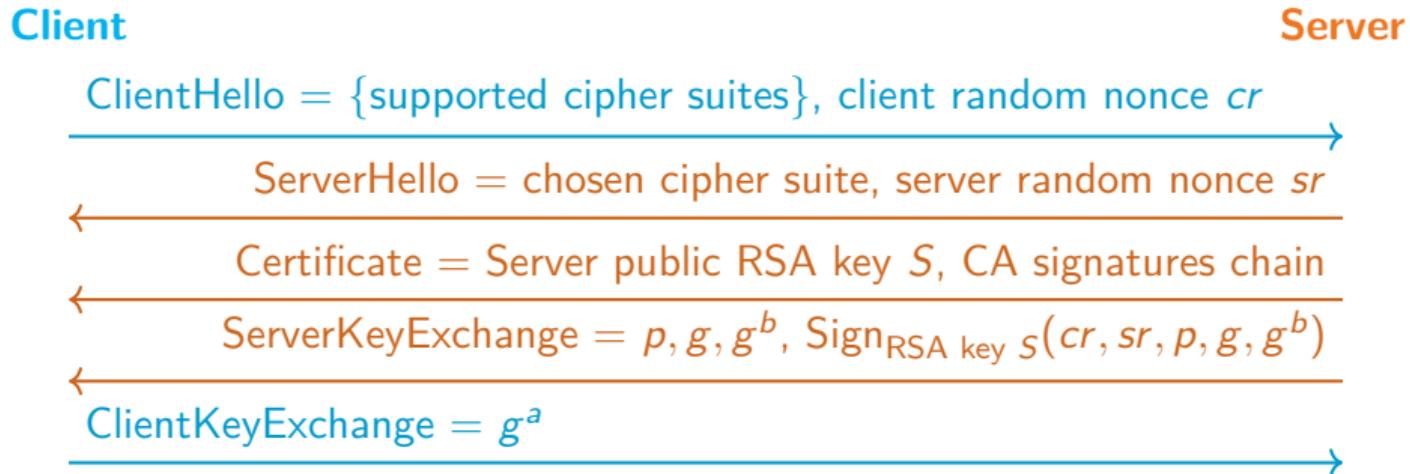
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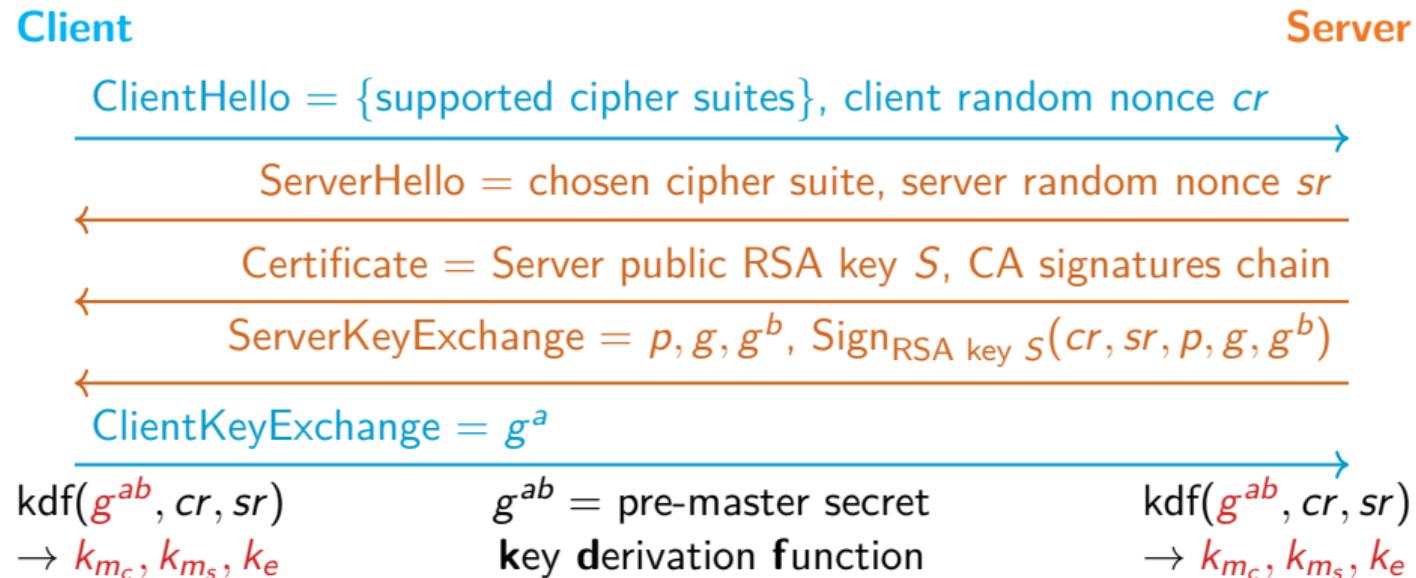
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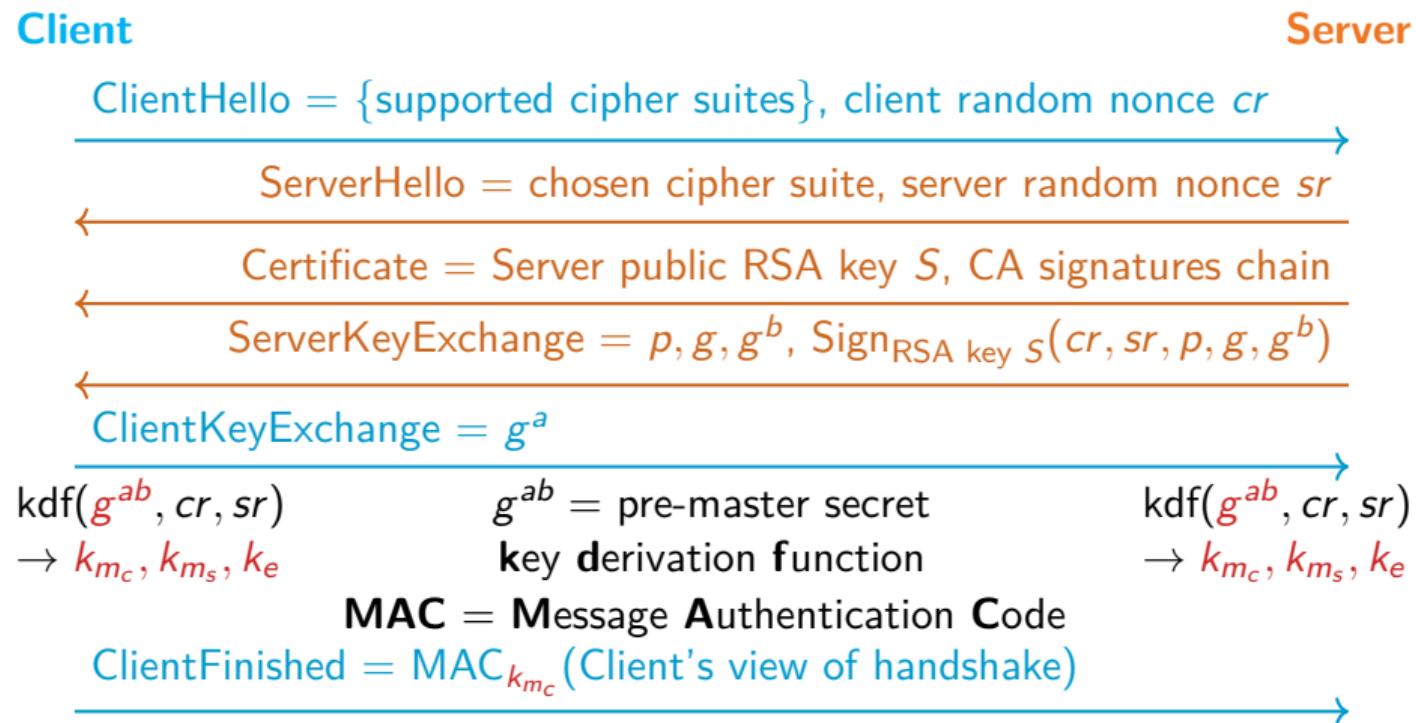
Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2



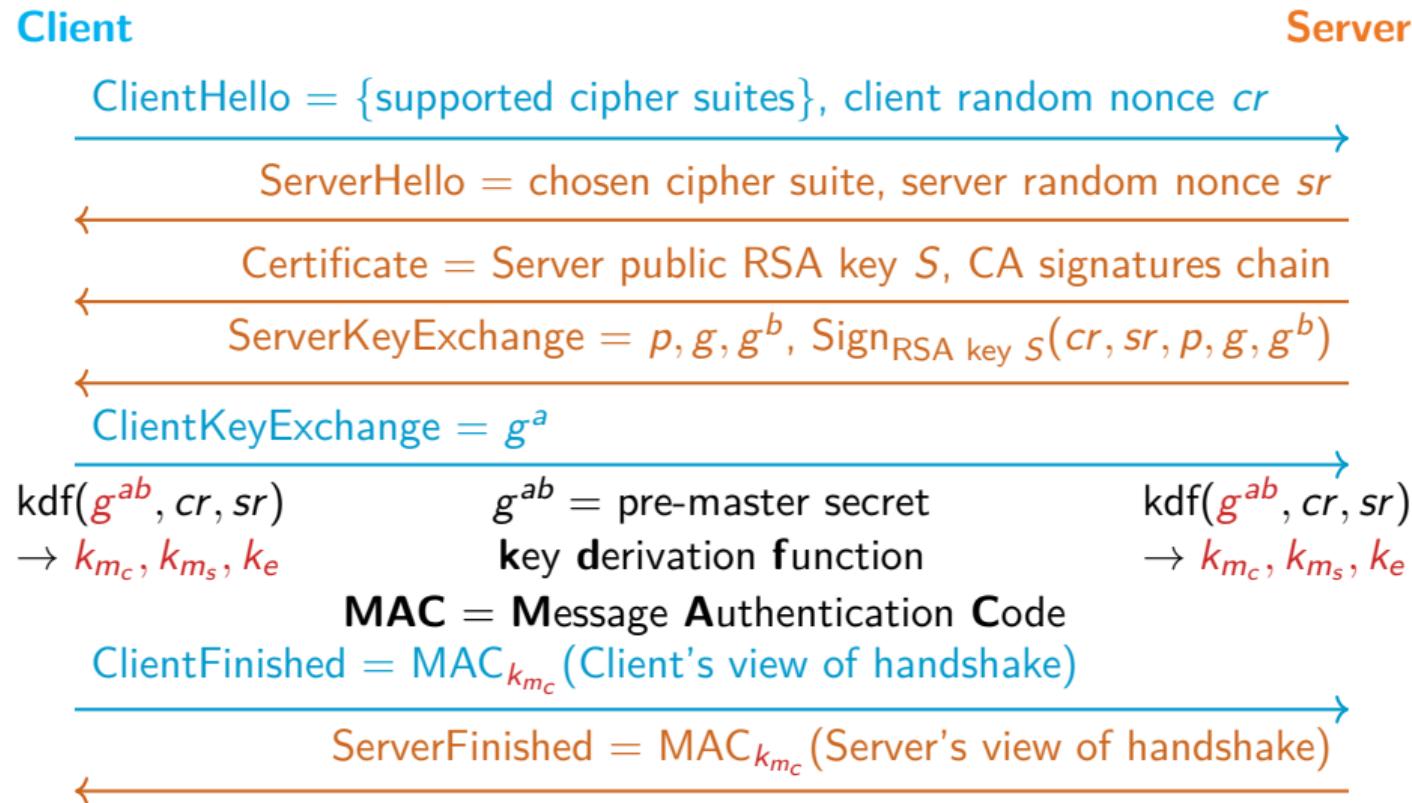
Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2



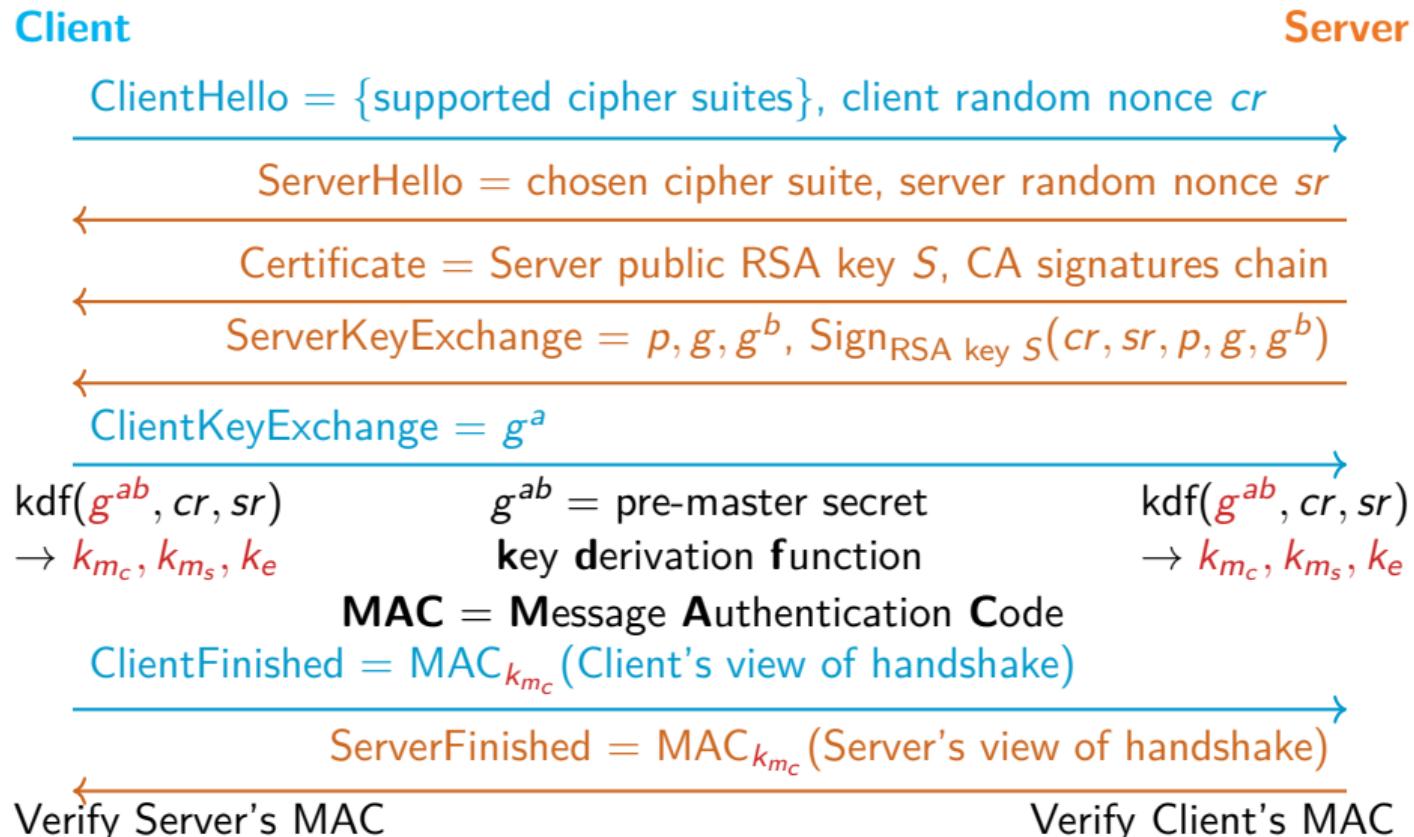
Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2



Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2



Regular Diffie–Hellman Ephemeral key-exchange in TLS 1.2



MITM DHE attack

Client

Attacker

Server

MITM DHE attack

Client

Attacker

Server

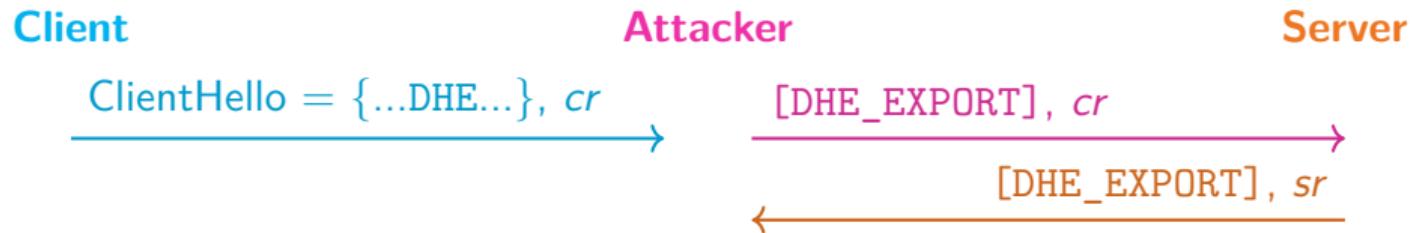
$\text{ClientHello} = \{\dots\text{DHE}\dots\}, cr$



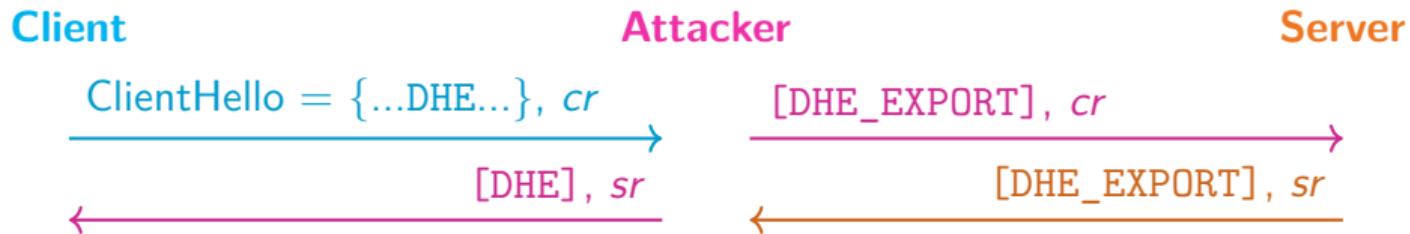
MITM DHE attack



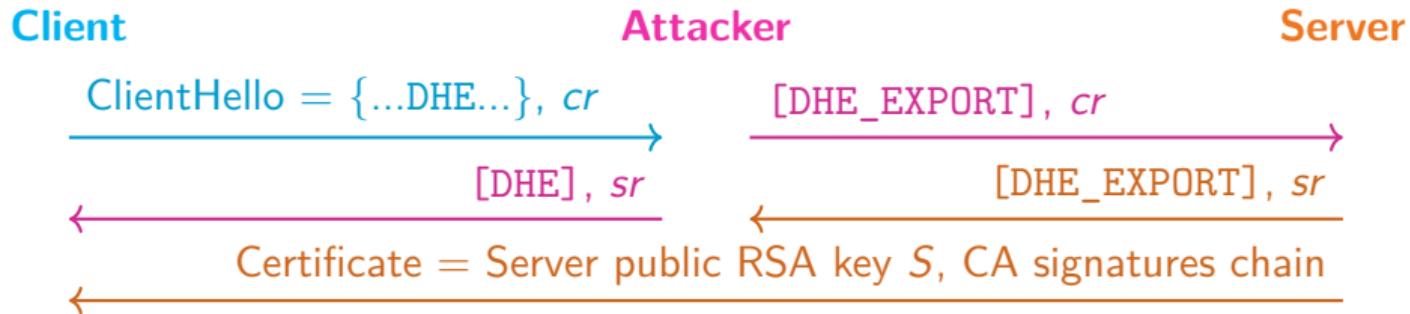
MITM DHE attack



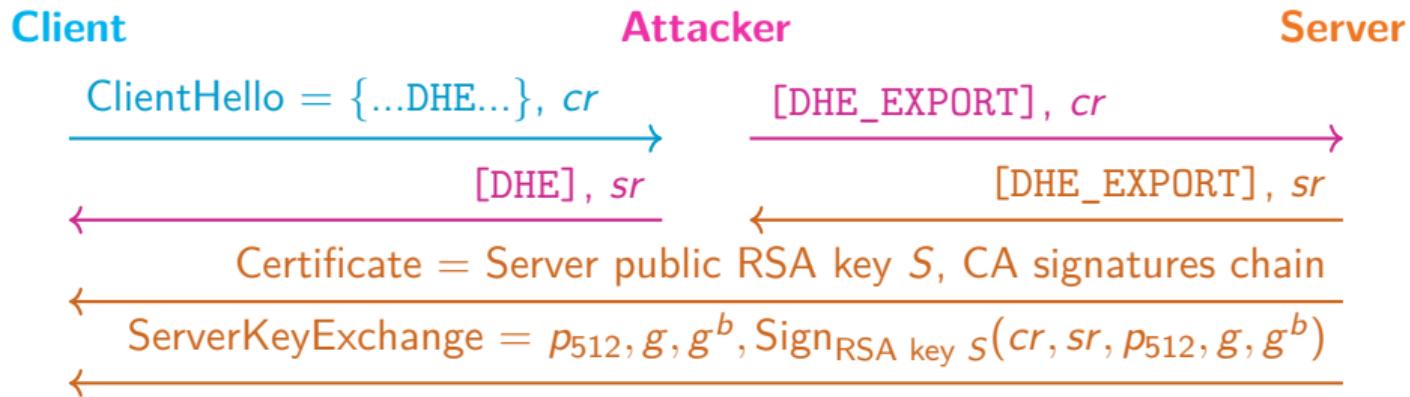
MITM DHE attack



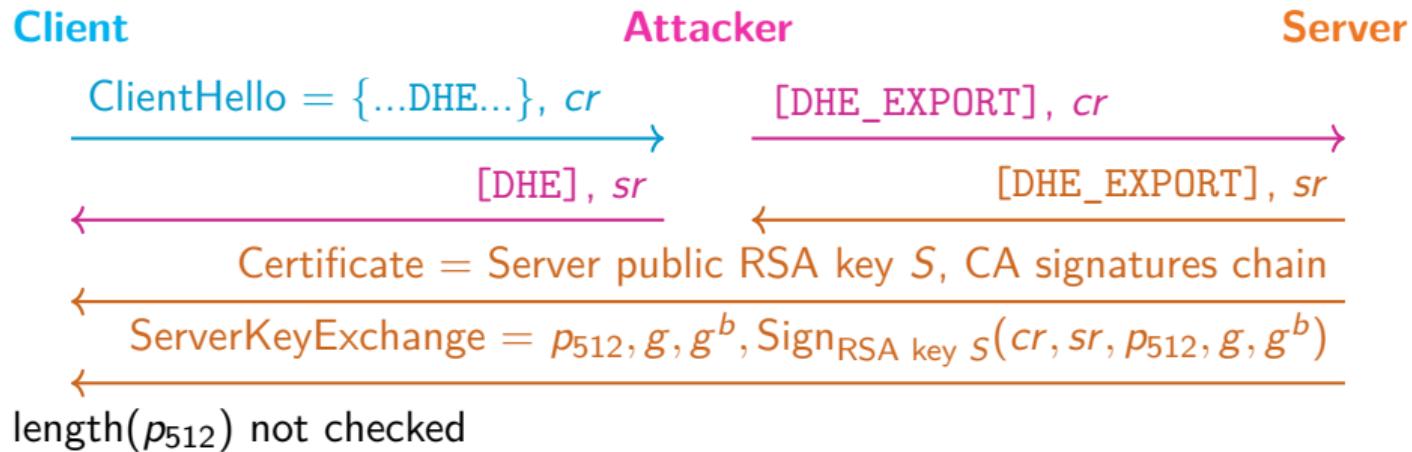
MITM DHE attack



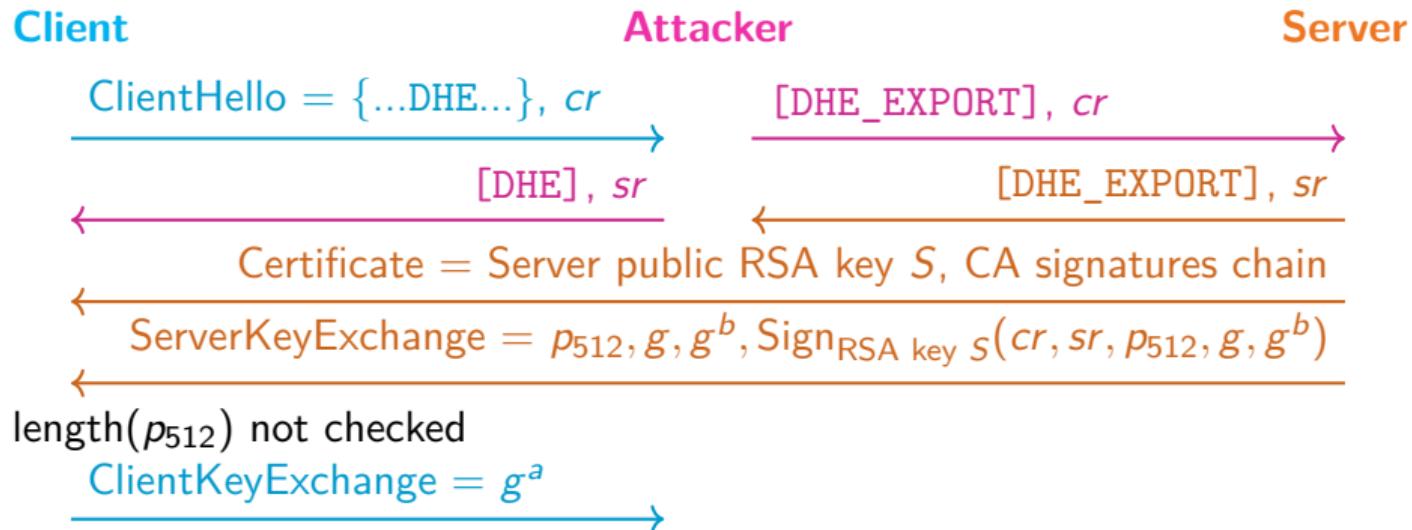
MITM DHE attack



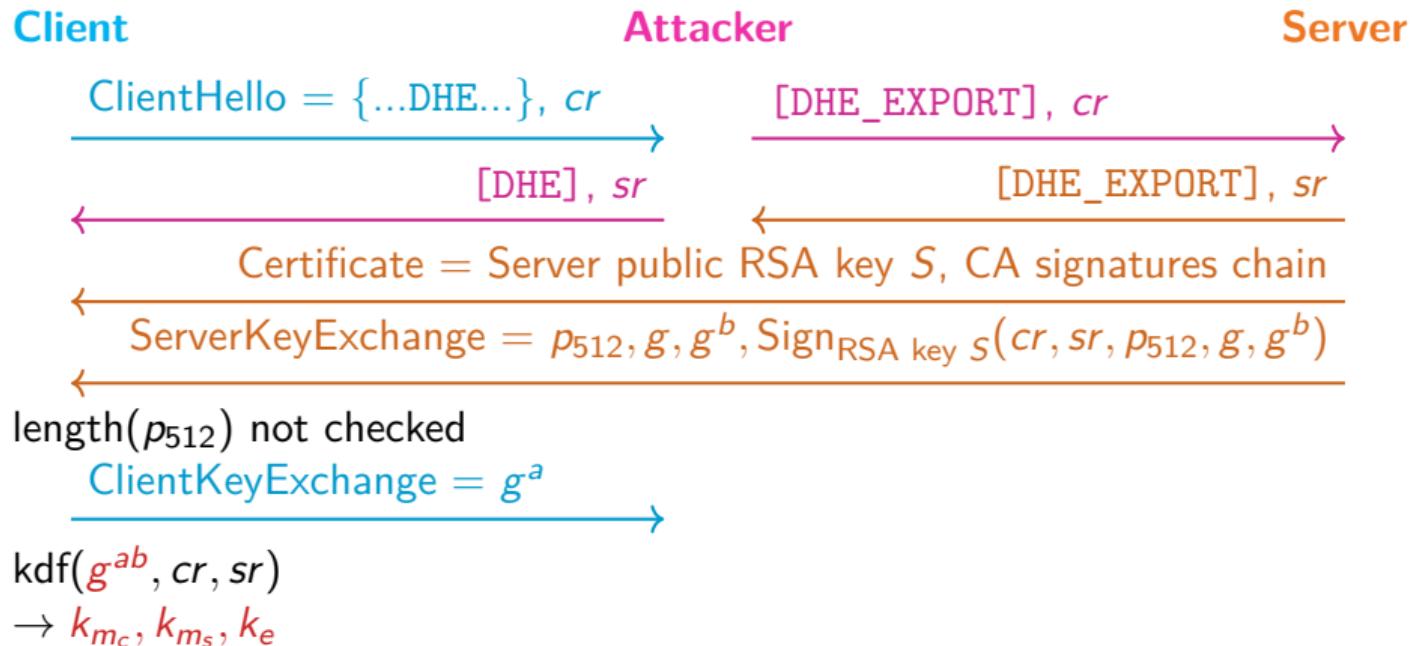
MITM DHE attack



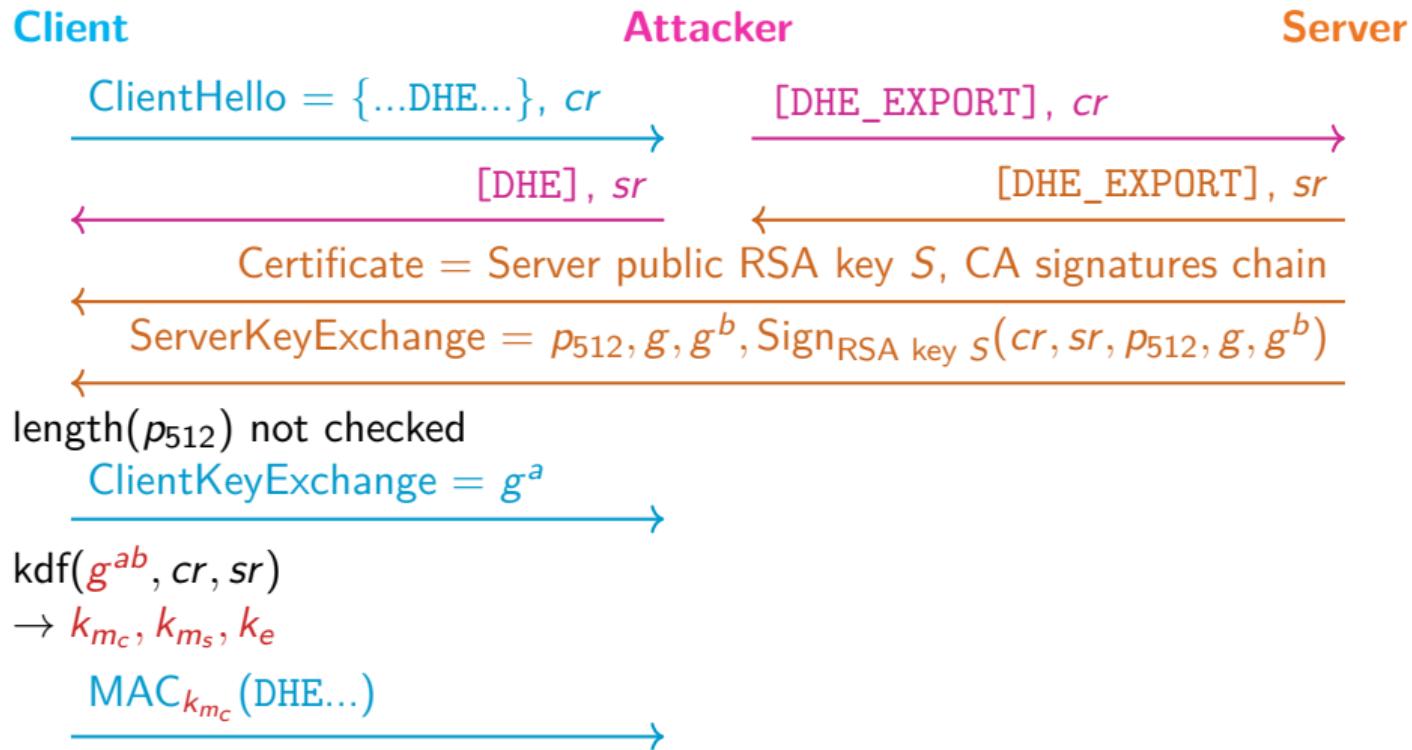
MITM DHE attack



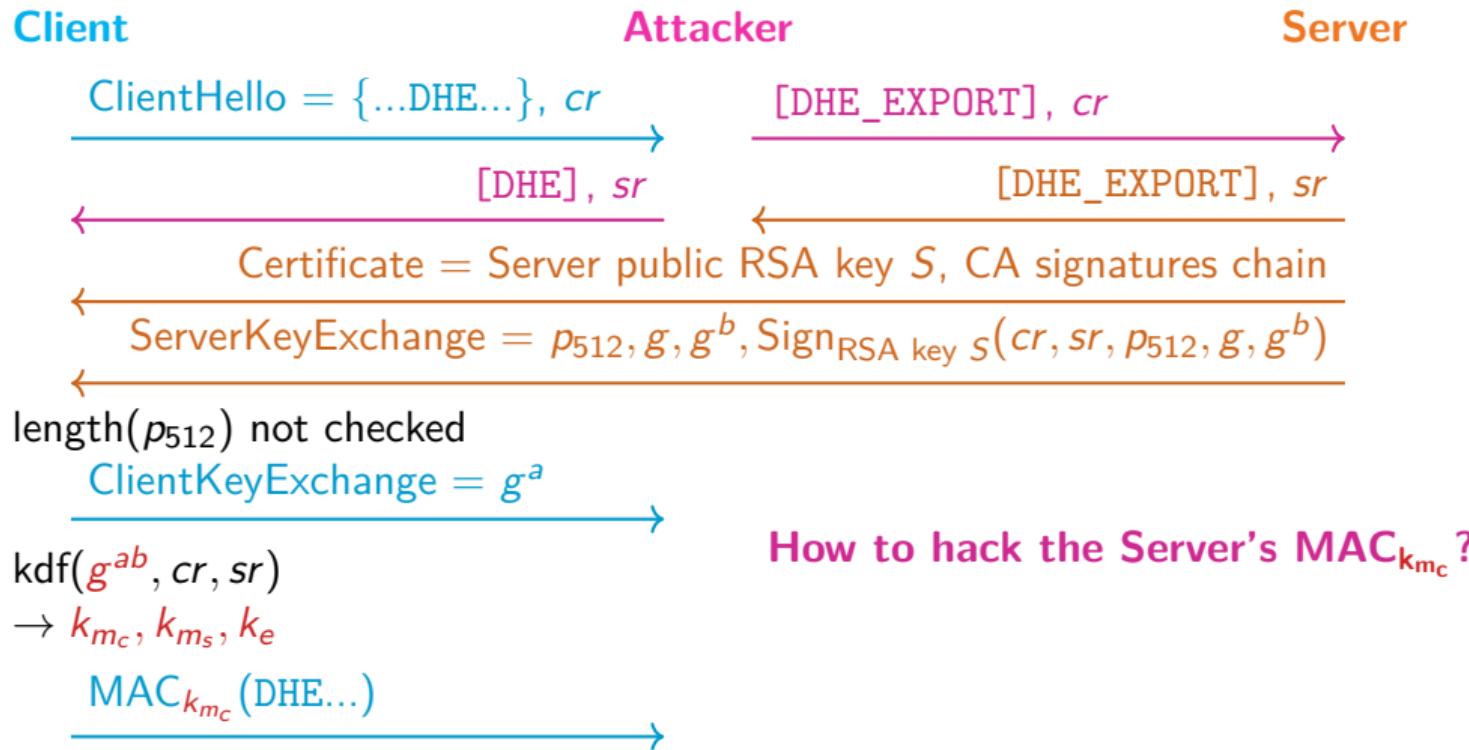
MITM DHE attack



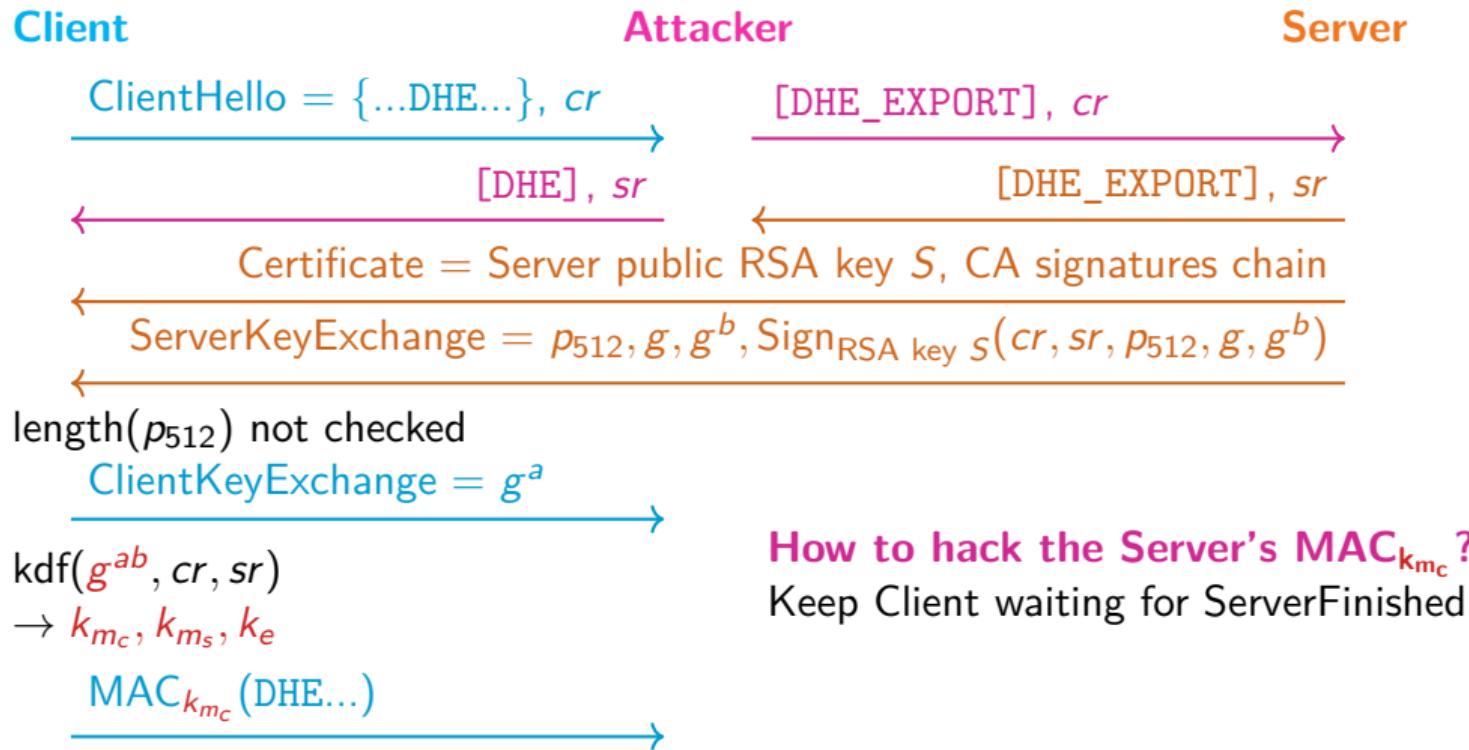
MITM DHE attack



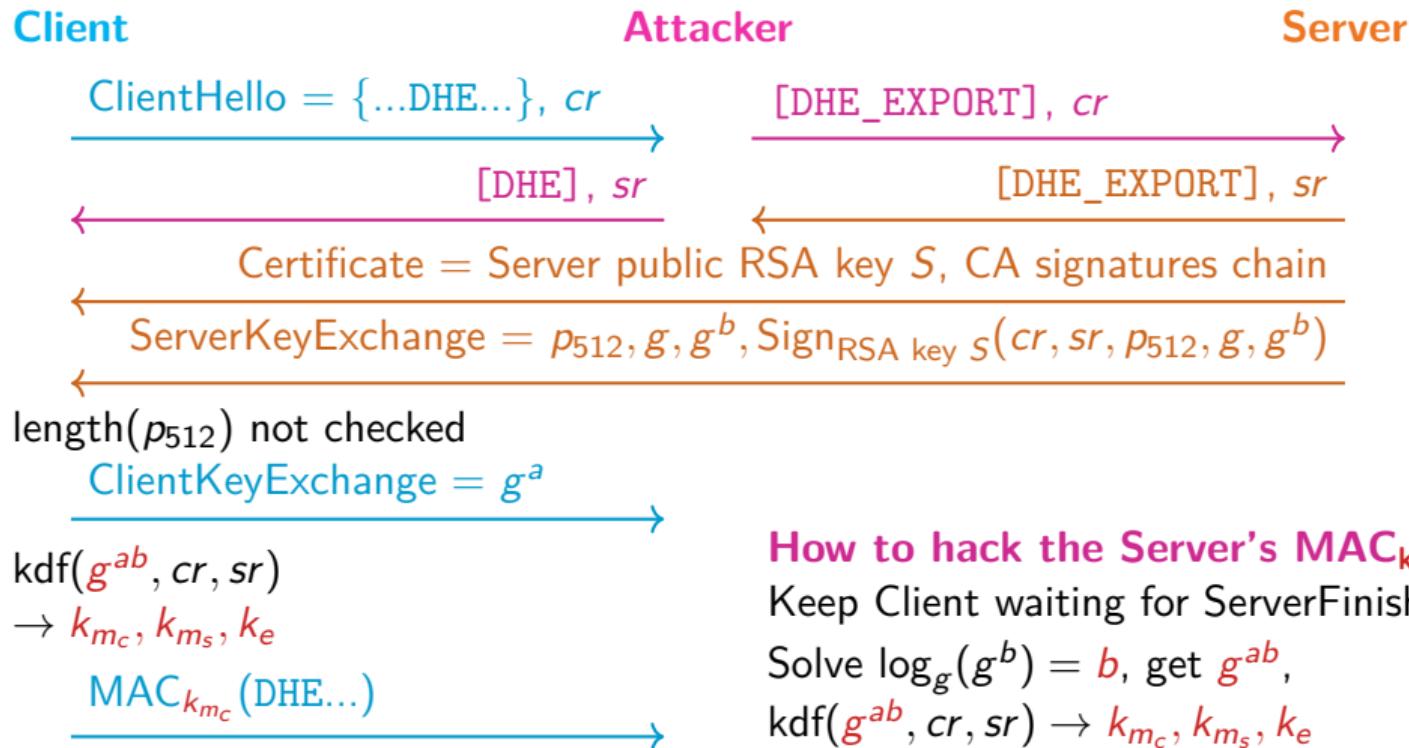
MITM DHE attack



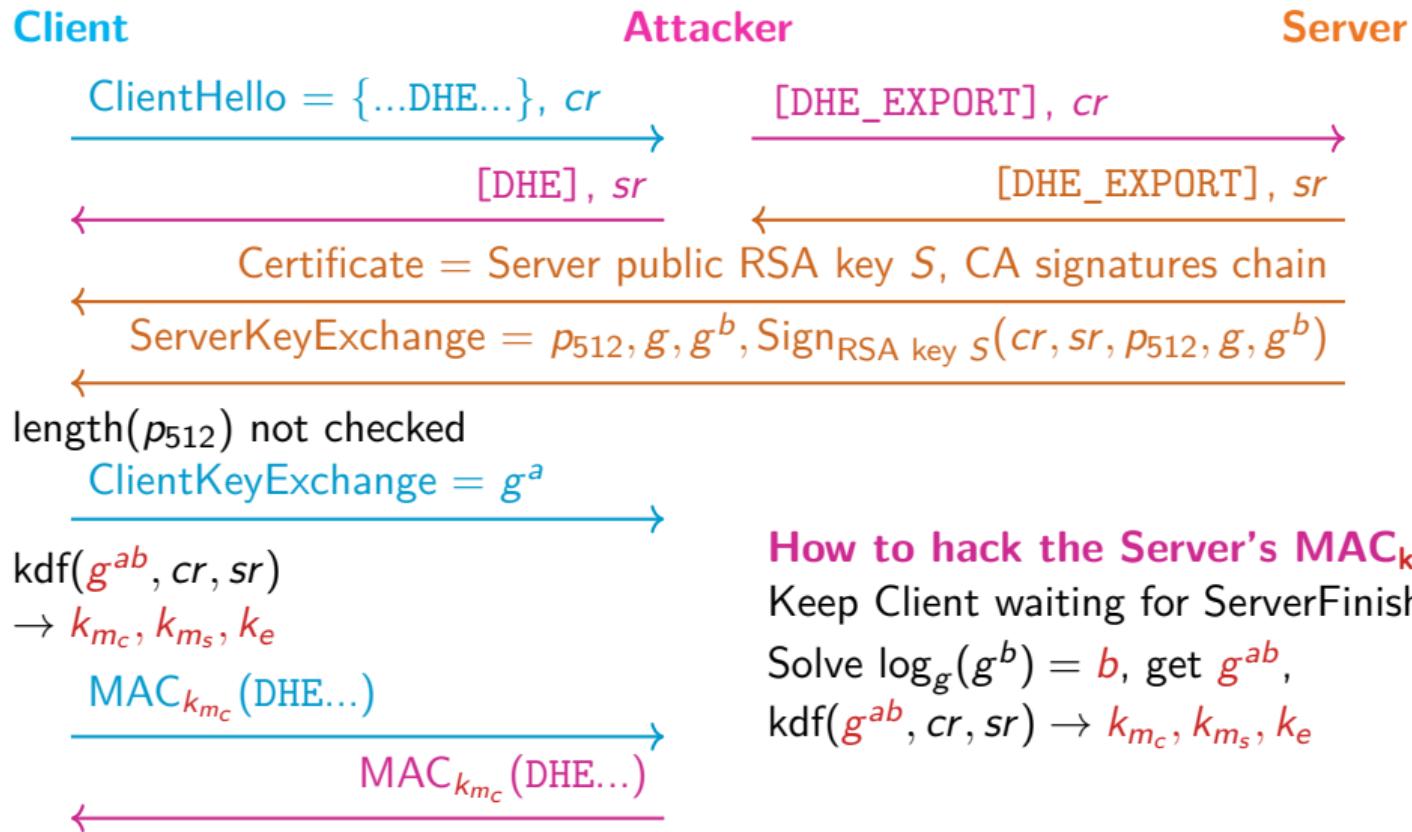
MITM DHE attack



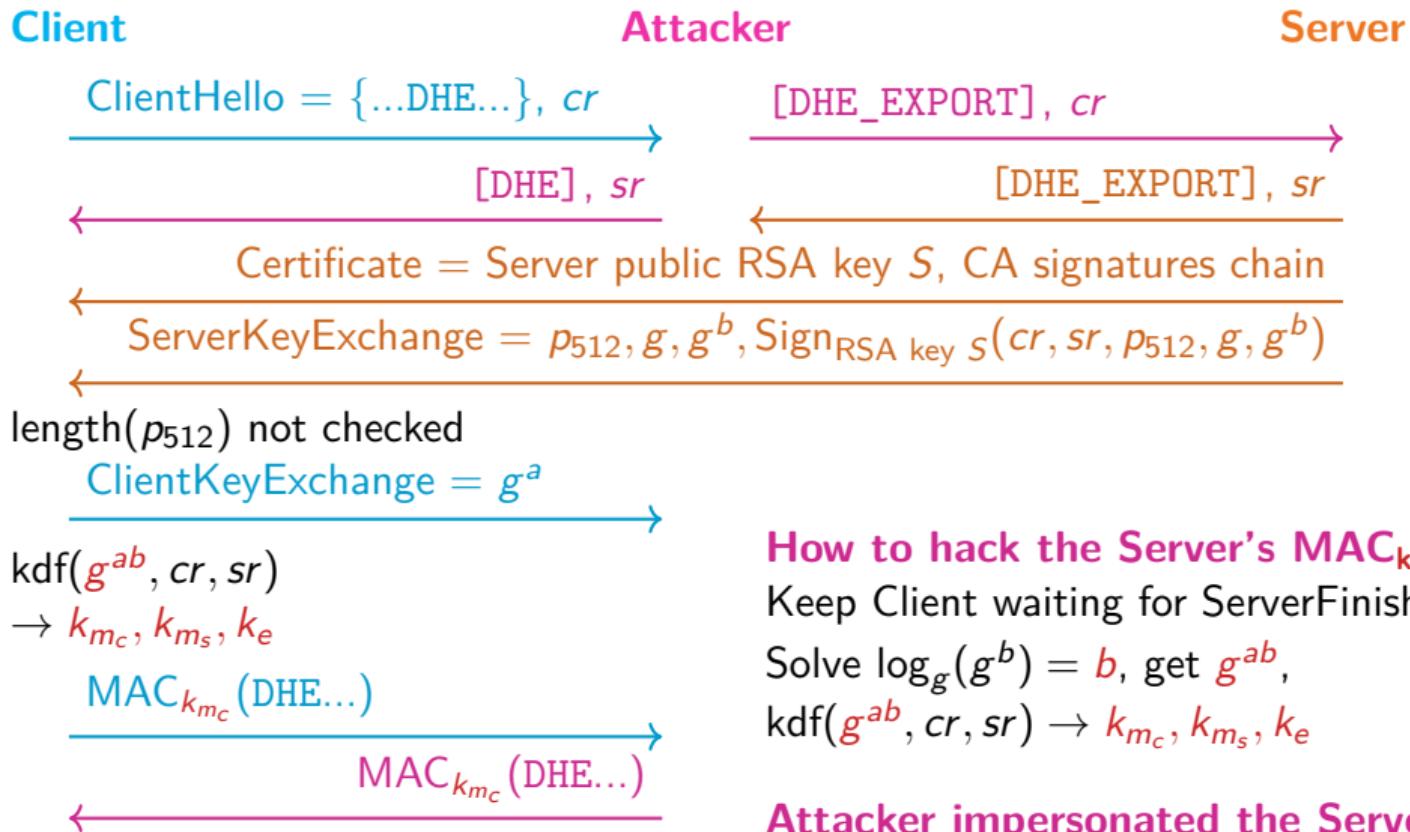
MITM DHE attack



MITM DHE attack



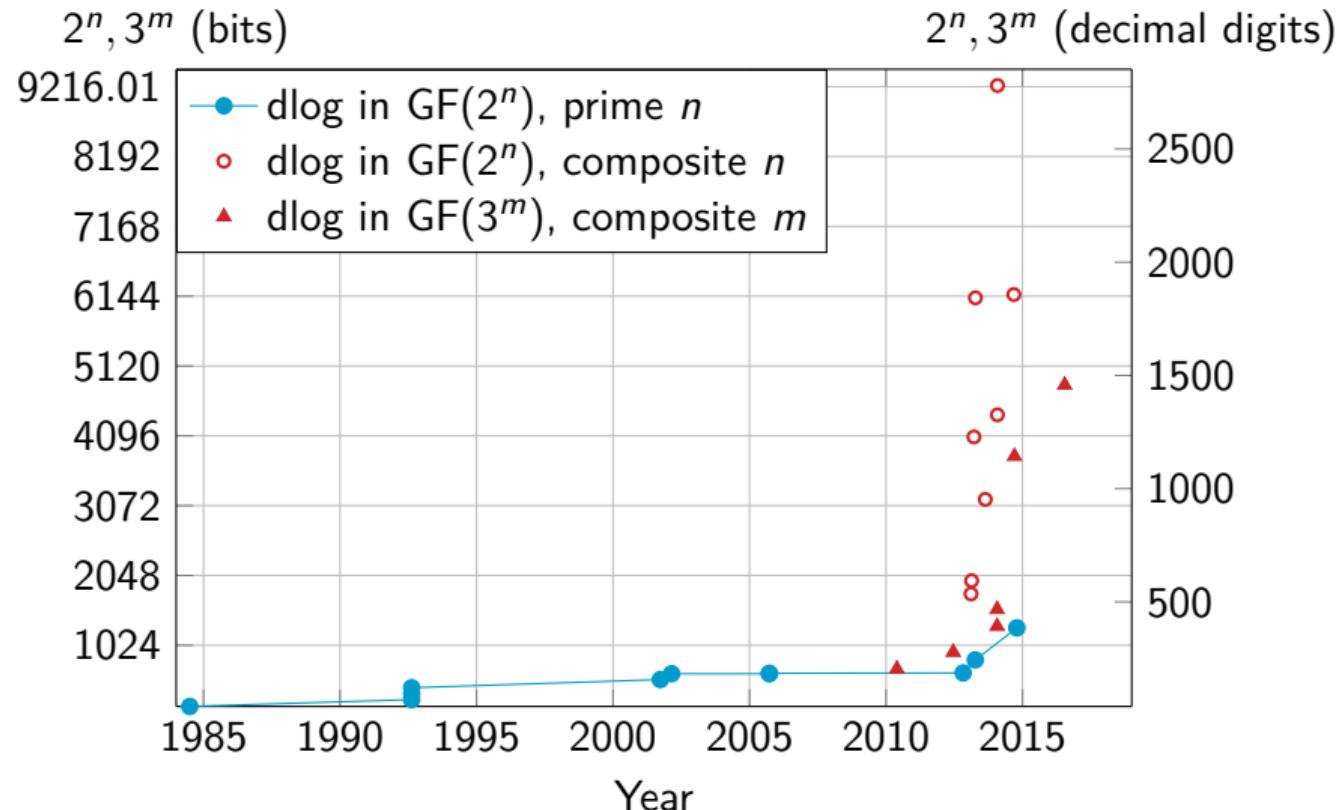
MITM DHE attack



Weak keys in the Moscow internet voting system (2019)

<https://members.loria.fr/PGaudry/moscow/>

Discrete logarithm computation in finite fields \mathbb{F}_{2^n} and \mathbb{F}_{3^m}



Outline

Introduction on Diffie–Hellman and the Discrete Logarithm Problem

Computing discrete logarithms

- Generic algorithms of square root complexity

- Sub-exponential algorithms

- Sieving

- Coppersmith–Odlyzko–Schroeppel algorithm

- Number Field Sieve

Record computations: RSA-240 (decimal digits) and DL-795 (bits)

Attacks on real-world DL-based cryptosystems

- 2010 PS3 hacking (attack on ECDSA)

- The 2015 Weak Diffie–Hellman attack

- Weak keys in the 2019 Moscow internet voting system

- Discrete logs in finite fields \mathbb{F}_{2^n} and \mathbb{F}_{3^m}

Pairings

What is a pairing?

$(\mathbf{G}_1, +), (\mathbf{G}_2, +), (\mathbf{G}_3, \cdot)$ three cyclic groups of order r

Pairing: map $e : \mathbf{G}_1 \times \mathbf{G}_2 \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_3$

1. bilinear: $e(P_1 + P_2, Q) = e(P_1, Q) \cdot e(P_2, Q)$, $e(P, Q_1 + Q_2) = e(P, Q_1) \cdot e(P, Q_2)$
2. non-degenerate: $e(G_1, G_2) \neq 1$ for $\langle G_1 \rangle = \mathbf{G}_1$, $\langle G_2 \rangle = \mathbf{G}_2$
3. efficiently computable.

In practice we use mostly

$$e([a]P, [b]Q) = e([b]P, [a]Q) = e(P, Q)^{ab} .$$

~ Many applications in asymmetric cryptography.

Pairings in cryptography: 1993 and 2001

1993

Menezes–Okamoto–Vanstone attack

2001

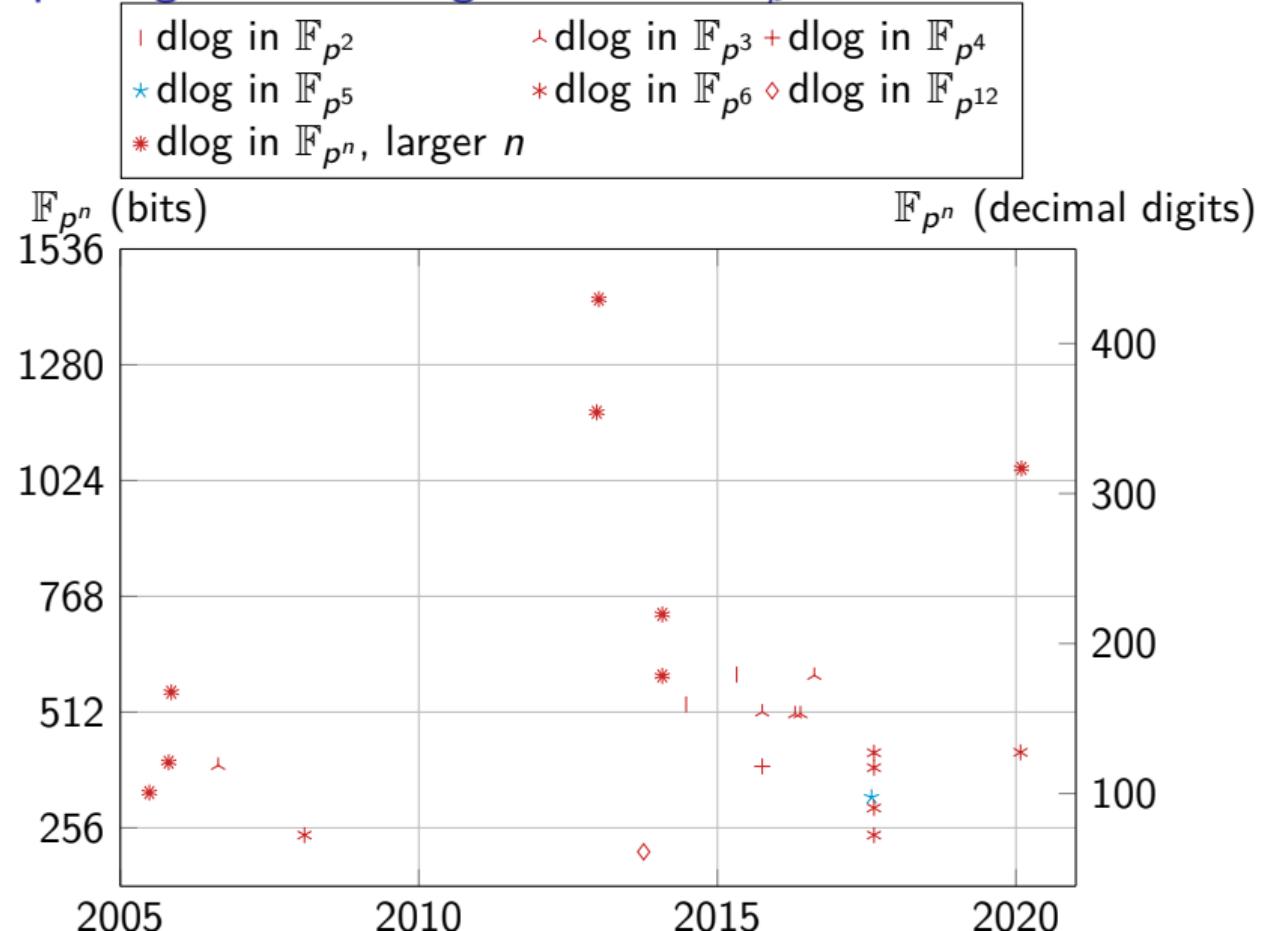
- Joux' tri-partite key exchange
- Boneh Franklin Identity based encryption
- Boneh Lynn Shacham short signature

Pairings with curves over fields \mathbb{F}_{2^n} and \mathbb{F}_{3^m} , rise and fall

Pairings with curves over fields \mathbb{F}_p

<https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/pairing-friendly-curves/>

Computing Discrete logarithms in \mathbb{F}_{p^n}



Choosing key-sizes

<https://members.loria.fr/AGuillevic/pairing-friendly-curves/>