# Cryptography and Security - Final Exam Solution 

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- duration: 3h
- no documents allowed, except one 2 -sided sheet of handwritten notes
- a pocket calculator is allowed
- communication devices are not allowed
- the exam invigilators will not answer any technical question during the exam
- readability and style of writing will be part of the grade

The exam grade follows a linear scale in which each question has the same weight.

## 1 Hidden Collisions in DSA

The following exercise is inspired from Hidden Collisions on DSS by Vaudenay, published in the proceedings of CRYPTO'96 pp. 83-88, LNCS vol. 1109, Springer 1996.

We recall the DSA signature scheme:
Public parameters $(p, q, g)$ : pick a 160 -bit prime number $q$, pick a large $a$ random until $p=a q+1$ is prime, pick $h$ in $\mathbf{Z}_{p}^{*}$ and take $g=h^{a} \bmod p$ until $g \neq 1$.
Set up: pick $x \in \mathbf{Z}_{q}$ (the secret key) and compute $y=g^{x} \bmod p$ (the public key).
Signature generation for a message $M$ : pick a random $k \in \mathbf{Z}_{q}^{*}$, compute

$$
r=\left(g^{k} \bmod p\right) \bmod q \quad s=\frac{H(M)+x r}{k} \bmod q
$$

the signature is $\sigma=(r, s)$.
Verification: check that $r=\left(g^{\frac{H(M)}{s}} \bmod q y^{\frac{r}{s} \bmod q} \bmod p\right) \bmod q$.
The hash function $H$ is the SHA-1 standard. The output of $H$ is a binary string which is implicitely converted into an integer. DSA was standardized by NIST with a usual suspicion that the NSA was behind it. It could be the case that some specific choices for $(p, q, g)$ could indeed hide some special property making an attack possible. This is what we investigate in this exercise.
Q. 1 What is the complexity of finding $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ such that $m \neq m^{\prime}$ and $H(m)=H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ ?

Using the birthday paradox, the complexity has an order of magnitude of

Q. 2 Describe a chosen-message signature-forgery attack based on the fact that an adversary knows two messages $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ such that $m \neq m^{\prime}$ and $H(m)=H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$.

The adversary asks the signer to sign $m$ and gets the signature ( $r, s$ ). Then, the forgery is $\left(m^{\prime},(r, s)\right)$. We can check that the signature is valid. Indeed,

$$
\left(g^{\frac{H\left(m^{\prime}\right)}{s} \bmod q} y^{\frac{r}{s} \bmod q} \bmod p\right) \bmod q=\left(g^{\frac{H(m)}{s} \bmod q} y^{\frac{r}{s} \bmod q} \bmod p\right) \bmod q=r
$$

Furthermore, $m \neq m^{\prime}$. So, this is a valid forgery.
Q. 3 Describe a chosen-message signature-forgery attack based on the fact that an adversary knows two messages $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ such that $m \neq m^{\prime}$ and $q=H(m)-H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ (with the integer subtraction).
Propose a way for the NSA to generate public parameters $(p, q, g)$ in such a way that it can later perform a forgery attack for a suitable message.

If $q$ divides $H(m)-H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$, then $H(m) \bmod q=H\left(m^{\prime}\right) \bmod q$. We can see that the attack from the above question still works, since the digest of messages is always taken modulo $q$.
So, the NSA can select two random messages $m$ and $m^{\prime}$ until $q=H(m)-H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$ is a 160-bit prime number. The message $m$ could be a test message (such as "this is a test message to check that the signature works") while $m^{\prime}$ could be a payment order.
Q. 4 To put more confidence, NIST added a way to certify that $(p, q, g)$ were honestly selected. For this, we shall provide together with the public parameters a value seed such that

$$
q=(H(\text { seed }) \oplus H(\text { seed }+1)) \vee 2^{159} \vee 1
$$

where $\oplus$ denotes the bitwise XOR, $\vee$ denotes the bitwise OR , and + is the regular addition of integers. I.e., $q$ is the XOR between $H$ (seed) and $H$ (seed +1 ) after which the least and the most significant bits are forced to 1 so that $2^{159} \leq q<2^{160}$ and $q$ is odd.
Propose a way to construct (seed, $p, q, g$ ) such that an attack is still possible.
HINT: take $m=$ seed and $m^{\prime}=$ seed +1 and estimate the probability that $\mid H(m)-$ $H\left(m^{\prime}\right) \mid=q$ for seed random, by looking at the propagation of carry bits in the subtraction.
HINT $^{2}$ : you may skip this question.

If we take a random seed, we let $m=$ seed, $m^{\prime}=$ seed $+1, m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ such that $\left\{m_{1}, m_{2}\right\}=\left\{m, m^{\prime}\right\}$ and $H\left(m_{1}\right)>H\left(m_{2}\right)$. We have $\left|H(m)-H\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right|=H\left(m_{1}\right)-$ $H\left(m_{2}\right)$. We define the event

$$
E:\left|H(m)-H\left(m^{\prime}\right)\right|=(H(\text { seed }) \oplus H(\text { seed }+1)) \vee 2^{159} \vee 1
$$

We want to estimate $\operatorname{Pr}[E]$. So, we repeat the above process $1 / \operatorname{Pr}[E]$ times until $E$ occurs and we can apply the same attack with $m$ and $m^{\prime}$.
We let $\operatorname{msb}_{2}(s)$ be the two most significant bits of a string s. We first assume that $\operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{1}\right)\right) \neq \operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{2}\right)\right)$.
When making the boolean subtraction $H\left(m_{1}\right)-H\left(m_{2}\right)$, the difference of the least significant bits gives 1 with no carry only when making $1-0$. This occurs with probability $\frac{1}{4}$. Then, for each of the 157 next bit positions, assuming there is no carry, the subtraction of the two bits matched the XOR and makes no carry with probability $\frac{3}{4}$ (that is, in all cases except $0-1$ ). Finally, the two most significant bits with no carry have a difference matching the XOR and starting with 1 in the following cases: $10-00,11-00,11-01$. The remaining cases are $10-01,11-10$, $01-00$. So, this happens with probability $\frac{1}{2}$. Hence, we have

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[E \mid \operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{1}\right)\right) \neq \operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{2}\right)\right)\right]=\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{4} \times\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{157}
$$

When $\operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{1}\right)\right)=\operatorname{msb}\left(H\left(m_{2}\right)\right)$, we can see that $E$ cannot occur. So,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[E]=\frac{1}{2^{5}} \times\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{157} \approx 2^{-70}
$$

The attack has a complexity of $2^{70}$.

## 2 DSA With Related Randomness

We recall the DSA signature scheme:
Public parameters $(p, q, g)$ : pick a 160 -bit prime number $q$, pick a large $a$ random until $p=a q+1$ is prime, pick $h$ in $\mathbf{Z}_{p}^{*}$ and take $g=h^{a} \bmod p$ until $g \neq 1$.
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Signature generation for a message $M$ : pick a random $k \in \mathbf{Z}_{q}^{*}$, compute

$$
r=\left(g^{k} \bmod p\right) \bmod q \quad s=\frac{H(M)+x r}{k} \bmod q
$$

the signature is $\sigma=(r, s)$.
Verification: check that $r=\left(g^{\frac{H(M)}{s}} \bmod q y^{\frac{r}{s} \bmod q} \bmod p\right) \bmod q$.
Sampling the randomness $k$ to sign is critical. This exercise is about bad sampling methods.
In what follows, we consider two messages $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$, a signature ( $r_{i}, s_{i}$ ) for message $m_{i}$ using the randomness $k_{i}, i=1,2$.
Q. 1 Sometimes, random sources are not reliable and produce twice the same value. If $k_{1}=k_{2}$, show that from the values of $p, q, g, y, r_{1}, s_{1}, r_{2}, s_{2}, m_{1}, m_{2}$ we can recover $x$.

$$
\text { Modulo } q \text {, we have } k_{i} \equiv \frac{H\left(m_{i}\right)+x r_{i}}{s_{i}}, i=1 \text {, 2. If } k_{1}=k_{2} \text {, we deduce } \frac{H\left(m_{1}\right)+x r_{1}}{s_{1}} \equiv
$$

$$
\frac{H\left(m_{2}\right)+x r_{2}}{s_{2}} \text {. So, } x=\frac{s_{2} H\left(m_{1}\right)-s_{1} H\left(m_{2}\right)}{s_{1} r_{2}-s_{2} r_{1}} \bmod q \text {. }
$$

Q. 2 To avoid the previous problem, a crypto apprentice decides to sample $k$ based on a counter. Redo the previous question with $k_{2}=k_{1}+1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { The equation is now } \frac{H\left(m_{1}\right)+x r_{1}}{s_{1}}+1 \equiv \frac{H\left(m_{2}\right)+x r_{2}}{s_{2}} \text { which leads us to } \\
& \qquad x=\frac{s_{2} H\left(m_{1}\right)+s_{1} s_{2}-s_{1} H\left(m_{2}\right)}{s_{1} r_{2}-s_{2} r_{1}} \bmod q
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. 3 To avoid the previous problem, a crypto apprentice decides to sample $k$ by iterating an affine function. Redo the previous question for $k_{2}=\alpha k_{1}+\beta$ with $\alpha$ and $\beta$ known.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { The equation is now } \alpha \frac{H\left(m_{1}\right)+x r_{1}}{s_{1}}+\beta \equiv \frac{H\left(m_{2}\right)+x r_{2}}{s_{2}} \text { which leads us to } \\
& \qquad x=\frac{s_{2} \alpha H\left(m_{1}\right)+s_{1} s_{2} \beta-s_{1} H\left(m_{2}\right)}{s_{1} r_{2}-s_{2} \alpha r_{1}} \bmod q
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. 4 To avoid the previous problem, a crypto apprentice decides to sample $k$ by iterating an quadratic function. Redo the previous question for $k_{2}=\alpha k_{1}^{2}+\beta k_{1}+\gamma$ with $\alpha$, $\beta$, and $\gamma$ known.

The equation is now

$$
\alpha\left(\frac{H\left(m_{1}\right)+x r_{1}}{s_{1}}\right)^{2}+\beta \frac{H\left(m_{1}\right)+x r_{1}}{s_{1}}+\gamma \equiv \frac{H\left(m_{2}\right)+x r_{2}}{s_{2}}
$$

We can rewrite it as
$x^{2} \frac{\alpha r_{1}^{2}}{s_{1}^{2}}+x\left(2 \frac{\alpha H\left(m_{1}\right) r_{1}}{s_{1}^{2}}+\frac{\beta r_{1}}{s_{1}}-\frac{r_{2}}{s_{2}}\right)+\left(\frac{\alpha H\left(m_{1}\right)^{2}}{s_{1}^{2}}+\frac{\beta H\left(m_{1}\right)}{s_{1}}+\gamma-\frac{H\left(m_{2}\right)}{s_{2}}\right) \equiv 0$
By writing this as $u x^{2}+v x+w \equiv 0$, we find that $x$ is one of the two solutions

$$
x=\frac{-v \pm \sqrt{v^{2}-4 u w}}{2 u} \bmod q
$$

We check the correct solution with $y=g^{x} \bmod p$.

## 3 Reset Password Recovery

We consider a non-uniform distribution $D$ of passwords. Passwords are taken from a set $\left\{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{n}\right\}$ and each password $k_{i}$ is selected with probability $\operatorname{Pr}_{D}\left[k_{i}\right]$. (We omit the subscript $D$ when there is no ambiguity in the distribution.) For simplicity, we assume that $\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right] \geq$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{2}\right] \geq \cdots \geq \operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{n}\right]$. We consider a game in which a cryptographer apprentice plays with a black-box device which has two buttons - a reset button and a test button - and a keyboard.

- When the player pushes the reset button, the device picks a new password $K$, following the above distribution, and stores it into its memory. The game cannot start before the player pushes this button.
- The player can enter an input $w$ on the keyboard and push the test button. This makes the device compare $K$ with $w$. If $K=w$, the device opens, the player wins, and the game stops. Otherwise, the device remains closed and the player continues.

A strategy is an algorithm that the player follows to play the game. Given a strategy, we let $C$ denote the expected number of times the player pushes the test button until he wins. The goal of the player is to design a strategy which uses a minimal $C$.

In this exercise, we consider several strategies. To compare them, we use a toy distribution $T$ defined by the parameters $a, p$ and

$$
\underset{T}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[k_{1}\right]=\cdots=\underset{T}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[k_{a}\right]=\frac{p}{a} \quad, \quad \operatorname{Pr}_{T}\left[k_{a+1}\right]=\cdots=\operatorname{Pr}_{T}\left[k_{n}\right]=\frac{1-p}{n-a}
$$

and assuming that $\frac{p}{a} \geq \frac{1-p}{n-a}$.
Q. 1 We consider a strategy in which the player always pushes the reset button before pushing the test button. For a general distribution $D$, give an optimal strategy and the corresponding value of $C$.
Apply the general result to the toy distribution $T$.
The best strategy is to test the most likely possible password, i.e. $k_{1}$, following the algorithm

## loop

reset
test $k_{1}$
end loop
The expected number of test queries is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{+\infty} i \operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right]\left(1-\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right]\right)^{i-1}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right]}=2^{-H_{\infty}}
$$

where $H_{\infty}$ is called the min-entropy.
For the toy distribution $T$, we have

$$
C=\frac{a}{p}
$$

Q. 2 We consider a strategy in which the reset button is never used again after the initial reset. For a general distribution $D$, give an optimal strategy and the corresponding value of $C$. Apply the general result to the toy distribution $T$.

The best strategy is to test the possible passwords by decreasing order of likelihood, i.e.
reset
for $i=1$ to $n$ do
test $k_{i}$
end for
The expected number of test queries is

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{i}\right]=G
$$

which is called the guesswork entropy.
For the toy distribution $T$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
G & =\frac{p}{a} \sum_{i=1}^{a} i+\frac{1-p}{n-a} \sum_{i=a+1}^{n} i \\
& =p \frac{a+1}{2}+(1-p) \frac{n+a+1}{2} \\
& =(1-p) \frac{n}{2}+\frac{a+1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. 3 For $n=3$ and $a=1$, propose one value for $p$ in the toy distribution $T$ so that the strategy in Q. 2 is better and one value for $p$ so that the strategy in Q. 1 is better.
We recall that we must have $\frac{p}{a} \geq \frac{1-p}{n-a}$.
For $n=3$ and $a=1$, the condition $\frac{p}{a} \geq \frac{1-p}{n-a}$ simplifies to $p \geq \frac{1}{3}$.
We could already look at the extreme cases with $p=\frac{1}{3}$, making $T$ the uniform distribution with $n=3$, and $p=1$, making $T$ having zero probability on $k_{2}$ and $k_{3}$. For the uniform distribution, we have $G=2$ and $2^{-H_{\infty}}=3$. So, the strategy of $Q .2$ is better. For $p=1$, we have $G=1$ and $2^{-H_{\infty}}=1$. So, both strategies are equally good.
In the general case, we have

$$
G=\frac{5-3 p}{2}
$$

and

$$
2^{-H_{\infty}}=\frac{1}{p}
$$

We have equality between $G$ and $2^{-H_{\infty}}$ if and only if $3 p^{2}-5 p+2=0$ which have roots $p=1$ and $p=\frac{2}{3}$. So, for $\frac{1}{3} \leq p \leq \frac{2}{3}$, $G$ is lower, and for $\frac{2}{3} \leq p \leq 1,2^{-H_{\infty}}$ is lower. We can propose $p=\frac{5}{6}$ for which the strategy of $Q .1$ is better.
Q. 4 We consider a strategy in which the player always pushes the reset button after $m$ tests have been made since the last reset. For a general distribution $D$, give an optimal strategy and the corresponding value of $C$.
Check that your result is consistent with those from Q. 1 and Q. 2 with $m=1$ and $m=n$.

```
The best strategy is to test the \(m\) most likely possible passwords by decreasing order
of likelihood, i.e.
    loop
        reset
        for \(i=1\) to \(m\) do
            test \(k_{i}\)
        end for
    end loop
Let
\[
p_{m}=\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right]+\cdots+\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{m}\right]
\]
```

We define the distribution $D^{\prime}=D \mid K \in\left\{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{m}\right\}$ conditioned to $K \in$ $\left\{k_{1}, \ldots, k_{m}\right\}$. We have $\operatorname{Pr}_{D^{\prime}}\left[k_{i}\right]=\frac{1}{p_{m}} \operatorname{Pr}_{D}\left[k_{i}\right]$. The distribution $D^{\prime}$ has a guesswork entropy $G_{m}$ defined by

$$
G_{m}=\frac{1}{p_{m}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} i \underset{D}{\operatorname{Pr}}\left[k_{i}\right]
$$

The expected number of iterations of the outer loop is $\frac{1}{p_{m}}$. The number of tests during the last iteration is $G_{m}$. The number of tests during each of the previous iteration is exactly $m$. So, the expected number of tests is

$$
C_{1}=m\left(\frac{1}{p_{m}}-1\right)+G_{m}
$$

Note that for $m=1$, we have $p_{1}=\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right], G_{1}=1$, and $C_{1}=\frac{1}{\operatorname{Pr}\left[k_{1}\right]}$. For $m=n$, we have $p_{n}=1, G_{n}=G$, and $C_{n}=G$.

## 4 A Bad EKE with RSA

In this exercise we want to apply the EKE construction with the RSA cryptosystem and the AES cipher to derive a password-based authenticated key exchange protocol (PAKE). For that, Alice and Bob are assumed to share a (low-entropy) password $w$. The protocol runs as follows:

$$
\left.\begin{array}{c}
\text { Alice } \\
\text { password: } w
\end{array} \begin{array}{c}
\text { Bob } \\
\text { password: } w
\end{array}\right]
$$

Here are some explanations:

- Alice generates an RSA modulus $N$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(3, \varphi(N))=1$. This modulus is supposed to have exactly 1024 bits. The modulus $N$ is written in binary and splits into 8 blocks $N=B_{1}\|\cdots\| B_{8}$. The blocks $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{8}$ are then encrypted with AES in CBC mode with IV set to the zero block and the key set to $w$. The obtained ciphertext blocks $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{8}$ are sent to Bob.
- Bob decrypts $C_{1}, \ldots, C_{8}$ following the AES-CBC decryption algorithm with IV set to the zero block and the key set to $w$. He recovers $B_{1}, \ldots, B_{8}$ and can reconstruct $N$. He picks a random 128-bit key $K$ and computes the RSA-OAEP encryption of $K$ with key $N$ and $e=3$. He then obtains a ciphertext $\Gamma$. This is split into 8 blocks $\Gamma=B_{1}^{\prime}\|\cdots\| B_{8}^{\prime}$ and the blocks $B_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, B_{8}^{\prime}$ are then encrypted with AES in CBC mode with IV set to the zero block and the key set to $w$. The obtained ciphertext blocks $C_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{8}^{\prime}$ are sent to Alice.
- Alice decrypts $C_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, C_{8}^{\prime}$ following the AES-CBC decryption algorithm with IV set to the zero block and the key set to $w$. She recovers $B_{1}^{\prime}, \ldots, B_{8}^{\prime}$ and can reconstruct $\Gamma$. She applies the RSA-OAEP decryption on $\Gamma$ with her secret key and obtains $K$.

So, Alice and Bob end the protocol with the secret $K$.
Q. 1 Assume (only in this question) that we use plain RSA instead of RSA-OAEP. Show that Eve can easily recover $w$ and $K$ in a passive attack with a single execution of the protocol. HINT: show that the plain RSA decryption of $\Gamma$ is easy in this case.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Since } K<2^{128} \text {, we have } K^{3}<2^{384} \text { which is small. So, } K^{3} \bmod N=K^{3} \text {. Eve } \\
& \text { could do an exhaustive search on } W \text { to decrypt } C_{1}^{\prime}\|\cdots\| C_{8}^{\prime} \text { to obtain some candidate } \\
& \text { values for } \Gamma \text {. She could then compute } \sqrt[3]{\Gamma} \text {. For wrong guesses for the password, this } \\
& \text { is unlikely to be an integer. For the correct } w \text {, this gives } K \text {. So, Eve recovers } w \text { and } \\
& K \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Q. 2 Propose a passive attack allowing Eve to deduce the password $w$ after a few executions of the protocol. Estimate the number of executions needed to recover a password with less than 48 bits of entropy with a high probability.
HINT: $N$ is not an arbitrary bitstring. You could think of eliminating some password guesses.

> We apply the principle of the partition attack: the set of valid $N$ does not corresponds to the set of messages. Namely, the most significant and the least significant bits of $N$ must always be 1 (since $N$ is odd and between $2^{1023}$ and $2^{1024}$ ). We could also note that $N$ mod $3=1$, so the set of valid $N$ is at least $\frac{1}{8}$ of the full space. Eve could do an exhaustive search on all $w$, decrypt $C_{1}\|\cdots\| C_{8}$ with the trial passwords and discards all trials not satisfying the above conditions. The set of possible passwords would thus be reduced by at least a factor 8 . By using $k$ executions of the protocol, the set of possible passwords is reduced by $8^{k}$ until it contains the correct password w. For instance, if has an entropy lower than 48 bits, $k=16$ iterations are enough to isolate the correct password.

