# The odd couple: MQV and HMQV 

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## Summary

MQV = EC-DH-based key agreement protocol,

- proposed by Menezes, Qu and Vanstone (1995),
- improved with Law and Solinas (1998),
- widely standardized (ANSI, ISO/IEC, IEEE), and recommended (NIST, NSA suite B).

HMQV = variant of MQV,

- proposed by Krawczyk (2005),
- attacked by Menezes,
- validity of attacks unclear.


## References

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## Road map

## PART I

- Key agreement protocols
- Elliptic curves
- The MQV protocols


## PART II

- The "insecurity" of MQV
- HMQV
- The "insecurity" of HMQV

CONCLUSION

## PART I

## Key agreement protocols



## Taxonomy

From the HAC. .
Key establishment is a protocol whereby a shared secret becomes available to two or more parties, for subsequent cryptographic use.

A key transport protocol is a key establishment technique where one party creates or otherwise obtains a secret value, and securely transfers it to the other(s).

A key agreement protocol is a key establishement in which a shared secret is derived by two (or more) parties as a function of information contributed by, or associated with, each of these, (ideally) such that no party can predetermine the resulting value.

## Key agreement



Entities can communicate, and run computations.
Either based on symmetric or asymmetric techniques.
Efficiency considered in terms

- number of messages sent (passes),
- amount of data per message,
- complexity of computations,
- possibility of precomputation.


## Authenticated key agreement (AK)

Both entities are assured that no one else can learn the value of the established key.
$\Rightarrow$ need authenticated information $\left(P_{A}, P_{B}\right)$
(e.g. via certificates and a CA)
$S_{A}$ and $S_{B}$ are long-term private keys

$A$ knows $P_{B}, B$ knows $P_{A}$.
Share value $K$ called the (ephemeral) session key.

## AK with key confirmation (AKC)

An AK protocol provides key confirmation of $B$ to $A$ if $A$ is assured that $B$ actually possesses the key.

- $\approx$ proof of knowledge,
- in practice, show $H(K)$ for a one-way hash function $H$.

AK with key confirmation of both $A$ and $B$ : authenticated key agreement with key confirmation.

## Question 1

What does "secure" mean for a key agreement protocol ?

## Security model

Formal model of [Blake-Wilson-Johnson-Menezes 97], variant of [Bellare-Rogaway 94], considered for MQV.

Participants communicate through an insecure channel so that an adversary can

| $A^{\left(S_{A}, P_{A}\right)}$ |  | $E$ record alter delete inject |  | $B^{\left(S_{B}, P_{B}\right)}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $x$ |  | $x$ |  |
|  | $x$ |  | $y$ |  |
|  | $x$ |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | $x$ |  |

- reveal previous session keys computed,
- corrupt entities (i.e. get read/write access to its long-term secret)
- initiate sessions, etc.


## Desirable attributes

Key-compromise impersonation: if $A$ 's secret is disclosed, $E$ can impersonate $A$, but should not be able to impersonate other entities.

Known-key security: if some session keys are compromised, future sessions should still achieve their goal.

Forward secrecy: if long-term private keys are compromised, previous session keys should remain secret.

Key control: neither entity should be able to force the session key to a preselected value (or subset thereof).

Other attributes: unknown key-share, message independence, loss of information, etc., see [Blake-Wilson-Johnson-Menezes 97]

## Question 2

Is the basic Diffie-Hellman protocol secure in the Canetti-Krawczyk model ?

## Basic Diffie-Hellman


$A$ has no assurance that she communicates with $B$
(since has no authenticated information).
Secrecy for a passive adversary only.

## Authenticated Diffie-Hellman



Leakage of an $x$ allows impersonation.

## Elliptic curves



## Idea

[Miller 85, Koblitz 87]
Plane curve $E$, with an abelian group $\left(E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right),+\right)$, in which DL is hard.


## Cryptographic curves

Curve $E$ of equation

$$
y^{2}=x^{3}+a x+b
$$

$E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)=$ set of points with (affine) coordinates in $\mathbb{F}_{q} \times \mathbb{F}_{q}$ (and $\mathcal{O})$.
Well-defined addition law (coordinates-dependent).
Typically, $q=p$ or $q=2^{d}$ for crypto curves.
Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman Problem (ECDLP):
Given a base point $P$, and $Q=r P$, find the random integer $r$.

## Domain parameters

- A field size $q$ (typically $q=2^{d}$ ),
- A curve, i.e. two field-elements $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{q}$,
- A base point $P=\left(x_{P}, y_{P}\right) \in E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$,
$\Rightarrow$ constraints on $E$ (special classes, etc.), $P$ (order, etc.), e.g.

$$
\operatorname{ord}(P)=n \in \mathbb{P}, \# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)=n p, n>4 \sqrt{q} .
$$

In practice, curve selected at random, then pass through a process of domain parameter validation.

## Key pair generation

Private key: integer $n$
Public key: $Q=n P$
$\Rightarrow$ finding the private key reduces to ECDL.
Pair chosen at random, need a public key validation, to check consistency of $(n, Q)$ :

- $Q \stackrel{?}{=} \mathcal{O}$
- $\left(x_{Q}, y_{Q}\right) \in \mathbb{F}_{q} \times \mathbb{F}_{q}$ ?
- $Q \in E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$ ?
- $n Q \stackrel{?}{=} \mathcal{O}$


## The MQV protocols



## MQV

## [Menezes-Qu-Vanstone 95]

Key idea: $A$ and $B$ use ephemeral key pairs, in addition to their long-term pairs.

Use of a mapping $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right) \mapsto \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}$, converting a point to an integer,

$$
E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right) \ni Q \mapsto \bar{Q} \in \mathbb{Z} / n \mathbb{Z}
$$

by considering the binary representation of $Q$ 's $x$-coordinate.

## The protocol

1. $A$ and $B$ generate ephemeral key pairs $\left(t_{A}, T_{A}\right),\left(t_{B}, T_{B}\right)$,
2. They run a DH with implicit signatures $s_{A}$ and $s_{B}$.

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With $h=\# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right) / n$ (cofactor).
Post-processing of $K$ with a key derivation function (e.g. hash).

## The protocol



Correctness (symmetric):

$$
K=h s_{A}\left(T_{B}+\bar{T}_{B} Q_{B}\right)=h s_{A}\left(t_{B}+\bar{T}_{B} n_{B}\right) P=h s_{A} s_{B} P
$$

## The protocol

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Why use of the cofactor $h=\# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right) / n$ ?
Ensures that $K$ is a point in the subgroup of order $n$ in $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$.

## Questions 3 \& 4

Does MQV require a third (trusted) party ?
Why using $H(K)$ as effective session key rather than $K$ ?

## Performance attributes

2 passes.
2.5 scalar multiplications $\left(\mathbb{Z} \times E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right) \mapsto E\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)\right)$ per party, e.g. for $A$ :

- $t_{A} \times P(1$ multiplication $)$
- $\bar{T}_{B} \times Q_{B}$ ( 0.5 mul .)
- $s_{A} \times(\ldots)(1 \mathrm{mul}$.
" 0.5 " because $\bar{T}_{B}$ uses only half the bits of the $x$-coordinate of $T_{B}$.
Role-symmetric (messages have same structure for each entity).
Non-interactive (messages independent of each other).


## Security attributes

No security reduction; "appears to have the security attributes of known-key security, forward secrecy, key-compromise impersonation, and key control (...)." [Menezes-Qu-Vanstone 95] Attacks in [Krawczyk 05], see PART II.
Security reductions to a DH-like problem in [Kunz-Jacques-Pointcheval-06].

## To be continued. . .



PART II

The "insecurity" of MQV


## Summary

## [Krawczyk 05]

- argues that MQV has several weaknesses,
- defines HMQV to fix some of them,
- presents rigorous analysis, with security proofs.

Uses the Canetti-Krawczyk model [Canetti-Krawczyk 01], including e.g. state-reveal queries.

## MQV weaknesses

(with paraphrases of Menezes' response [Menezes 05])

- Security depends on the group representation
- Exploits unrealistic "contrived group representations", and representations allowed by standards are okay.
- Existence of unknown key-share attacks
- There exists simple countermeasures, mentioned in latest standards.
- Lack of perfect forward secrecy
- Not proper to MQV, but to any 2-pass protocol, including HMQV.
- Possibility of key-compromise impersonation
- Need very powerful adversary (getting A's secret and B's inner state), applies to HMQV as well.
+ observations that key validations require expensive extra-computation (including from the CA).


## Unknown key-share attack

[Kaliski 01]
Idea: coerce $A$ and $B$ to establish a key s.t. $B$ doesn't know that the key is shared with $A$ (but believes it is with $E$ ).
$E$ doesn't know $K$ !
Also called source-substitution attack.

## Unknown key-share attack

After the attack: $A$ and $B$ share a secret $K$ (unknown by $E$ ), but $B$ believes $K$ is shared with $E$.

Ex. of application: $B$ sends a message $M$ (e.g. "are you free tonight?") to $E$, protected with $K$

$A$ knows she shares $K$ with $B$, hence she will believe that the message is sent by $B$, while $B$ intends to send it to $E$.

## Unknown key-share attack

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Online attack ( $E$ has to get $\left(n_{E}, Q_{E}\right)$ certified!):


## Unknown key-share attack



Key trick: B computes

$$
K \leftarrow h s_{B}\left(T_{E}+\bar{T}_{E} Q_{E}\right)=h s_{B}\left(T_{A}+\bar{T}_{A} Q_{A}\right)
$$

$\Rightarrow$ valid key shared with $A$.
$E$ does not know $K$, since $t_{E}=\log T_{E}$ unknown.

## Unknown key-share attack



Countermeasures:

- Ephemeral key commitment: exchange $H\left(T_{A}\right)$ and $H\left(T_{B}\right)$ before $T_{A}$ and $T_{B}$.
- Delay detection: since E's operations relatively long.
- Certificate aging: require "old enough" certificates.


## HMQV



## The protocol

MQV:

| $A^{\left(n_{A}, Q_{A}\right)}$ |  | $B^{\left(n_{B}, Q_{B}\right)}$ |
| ---: | :--- | :--- |
| $t_{A} \leftarrow\left[1, n\left[; T_{A} \leftarrow t_{A} P\right.\right.$ | $T_{A}$ |  |
|  | $\longleftarrow T_{B}$ | $t_{B} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow}\left[1, n\left[; T_{B} \leftarrow t_{B} P\right.\right.$ |
| $s_{A} \leftarrow\left(t_{A}+\bar{T}_{A} n_{A}\right)[n]$ |  | $s_{B} \leftarrow\left(t_{B}+\bar{T}_{B} n_{B}\right)[n]$ |
| $K \leftarrow h s_{A}\left(T_{B}+\bar{T}_{B} Q_{B}\right)$ |  | $K \leftarrow h s_{B}\left(T_{A}+\bar{T}_{A} Q_{A}\right)$ |

## HMQV:

Replace $\bar{T}_{A}$ by $\bar{H}\left(T_{A}, B\right)$, and $\bar{T}_{B}$ by $\bar{H}\left(T_{B}, A\right)$.
Objective:

- need no assumption on the group representation,
- avoid the need for key validation.


## Advantages over MQV

- Extensive analysis, security proofs
- Same or better performance, compared to MQV
- Additional security features

Proofs: security in the Canetti-Krawczyl model, KCI , weak forward secrecy, resilience to ephemeral exponents leakage.
w.r.t. CDH, GDH, KEA1, in the random oracle model

## The "insecurity" of HMQV



## Attacks on HMQV

## [Menezes 05] presented

- attacks on HMQV, contradicting the security proof,
- flaws in 2 proofs.

Attacks exploit omission of key validation, and need knowledge of ephemeral exponents.

Flaws in the proof because of no key validation.
"Menezes' claim that the proof of XCR signature is flawed is incorrect"[Krawczyk 05]

## Small-subgroup attack

Key idea: combine state-reveal and session-key queries, to get relations

$$
\begin{aligned}
n_{B} & =c_{1} \bmod t_{1} \\
n_{B} & =c_{2} \bmod t_{2} \\
\ldots & \cdots \\
n_{B} & =c_{k} \bmod t_{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

and then find $n_{B}$ by the CRT's isomorphism.
Details in [Menezes 05]

## CONCLUSION



## Summary

Remarkable facts that

- MQV had no security proof (until [Kunz-Jacques-Pointcheval-06]),
- while HMQV had some. . .
- but partially incorrect.

Still, HMQV benefits of

- a rigorous analysis,
- great performance (as MQV).


## Final words

Designing/analysing AK protocols is particularly difficult;

- multitude of attack scenarios, problem of deciding their realism,
- complexity of formal models, and analysis within,
- importance of the temporal dimension.
+ delicate issue of "provable security" (see Koblitz's arguments, and subsequent tentative responses)...


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