
Lecture 3: Public Key Cryptography

-COMP 6712 Advanced Security and Privacy

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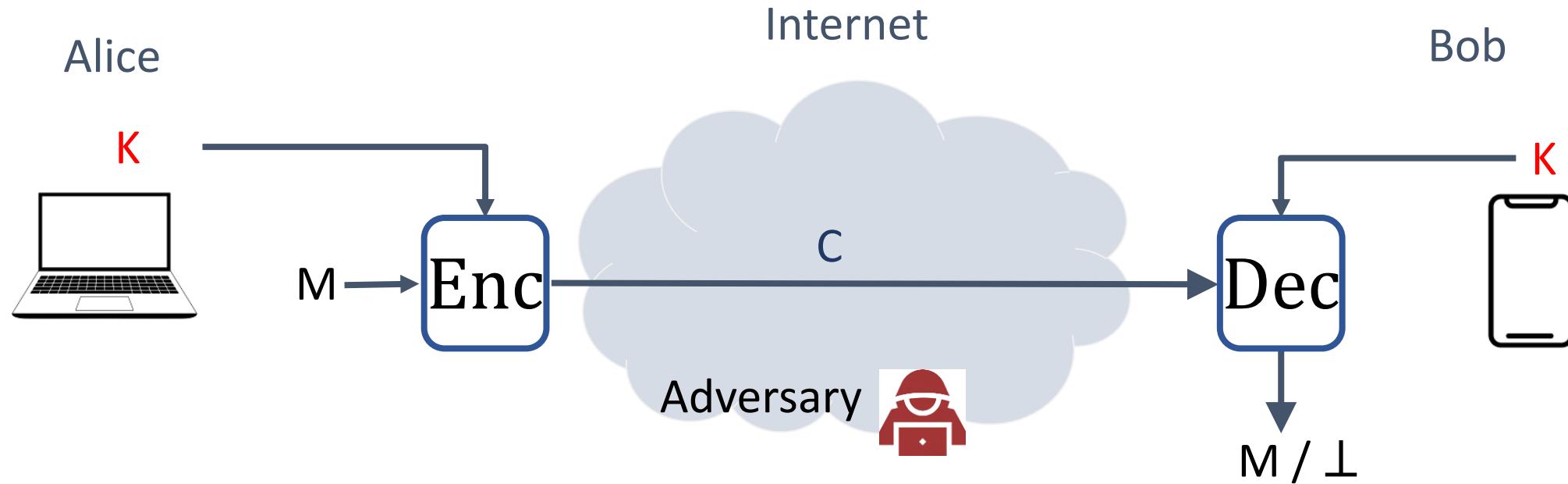
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2022/1/30

Public Key Cryptography

- Recall symmetric key cryptography (big picture)
- Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange
- Public key encryption: ElGamal, RSA
- Digital signature

Symmetric-key encryption



Enc : encryption algorithm (public)

K : shared key between Alice and Bob

Dec : decryption algorithm (public)

1.Kerckhoffs' Principle (1883)

- Bob must have some information that Adversary doesn't have
- How about keeping the decryption algorithm secret?
 - NO. algorithms for every user; share; need new design once broken

Design your system to be secure even if the attacker has complete knowledge of all its algorithms

- The only secret Bob has and Adversary doesn't have is the SECRET KEY

2. Security definitions

- As said in lecture 2, we consider computational security (i.e., the adversary is computationally bounded)

Definition: A scheme Π is said to be **computationally secure** if any PPT adversary succeeds in **breaking** the scheme with **negligible** probability.

- But what is exactly mean by **breaking**?
- This is measured by the **Aim** and **Capability** of the adversary.

2. Security definitions

- Breaking/security is measured by the Aim and Capability of the adversary.

Aim

Try to learn something meaningful from the target ciphertext C^*

Capability

The ciphertext C^* + Learn more from system

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Given $C^* = \text{Enc}(m)$, $f(m) \leftarrow A(C^*, ..)$



Capability

The ciphertext C^* + Learn more from system

A chooses any m_0, m_1
Given $C^* = \text{Enc}(m_b)$, Guess b , $b' \leftarrow A(C^*, ..)$

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Capability

The ciphertext C^* + Learn more from system

Only C^* XXX=eav

C^* and the adversary can choose plaintext
XXX=CPA; denoted by $A^{\text{Enc}()}$

C^* and adversary can further choose ciphertext
XXX=CCA; denoted by $A^{\text{Enc}(\), \text{Dec}(\)}$

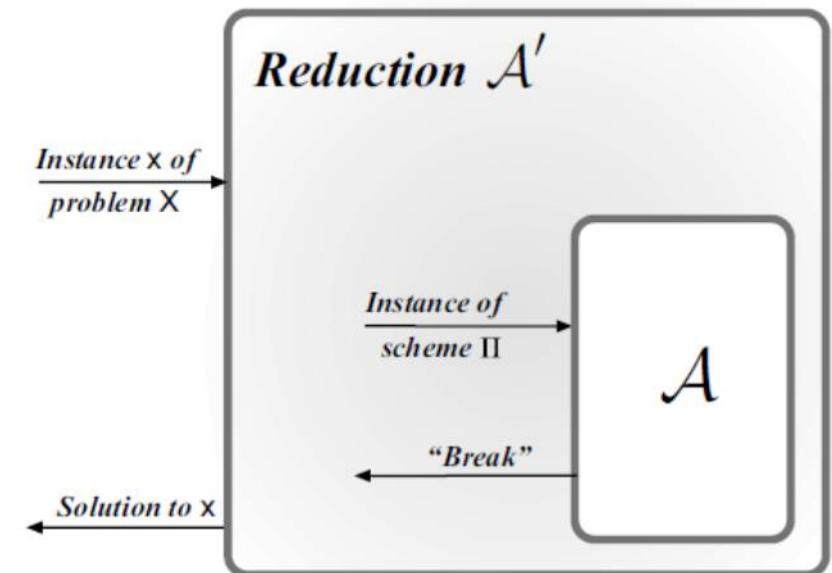
3. Security Proof: reduction

Let us first talk about
how to show Problem A is harder than B?

Proving Π is secure is showing
Breaking Π is harder than Problem X



If Problem X is hard \rightarrow Breaking Π is hard,
which means Π is secure

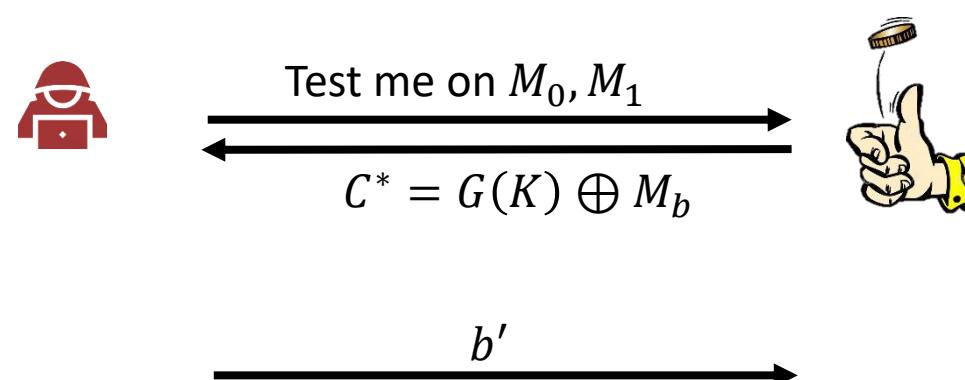
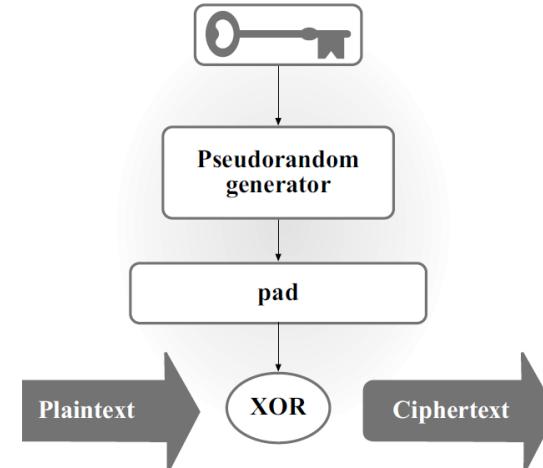


3. Security Proof: reduction: IND-eav as an example

$\Pi_1.$ Gen: $K \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^k$

$\Pi_1.$ Enc(K, M): $C = G(K) \oplus M$

$\Pi_1.$ Enc(K, C): $M = G(K) \oplus C$

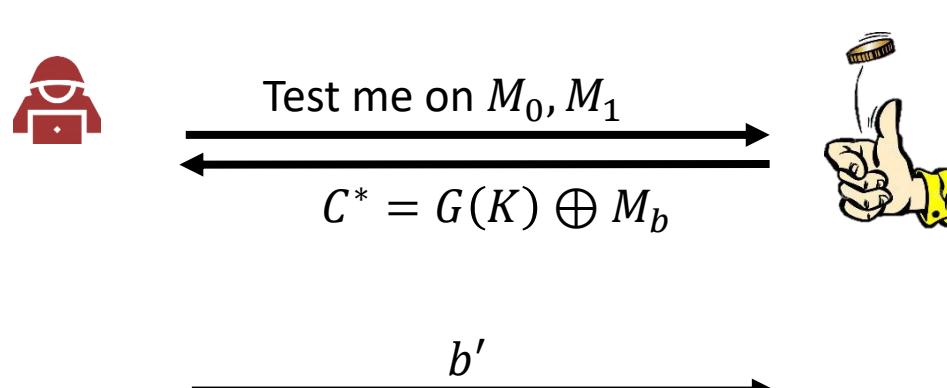
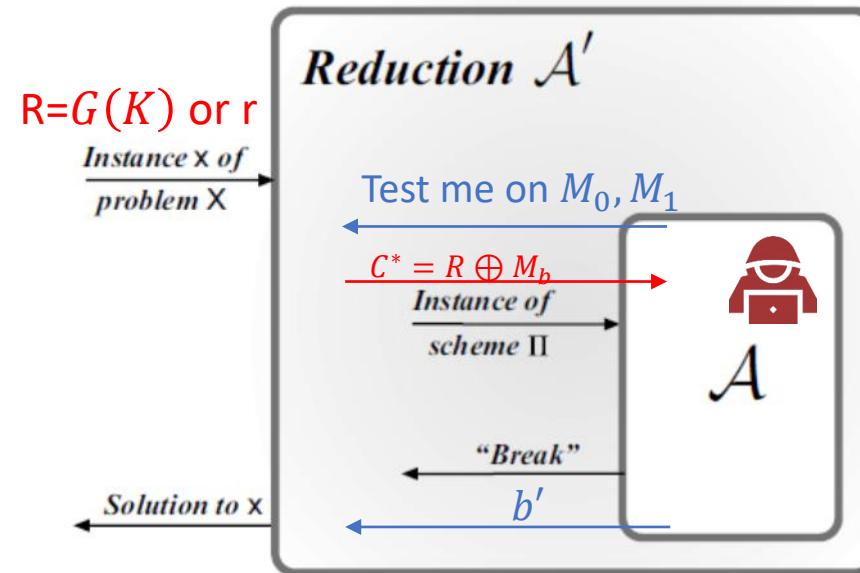


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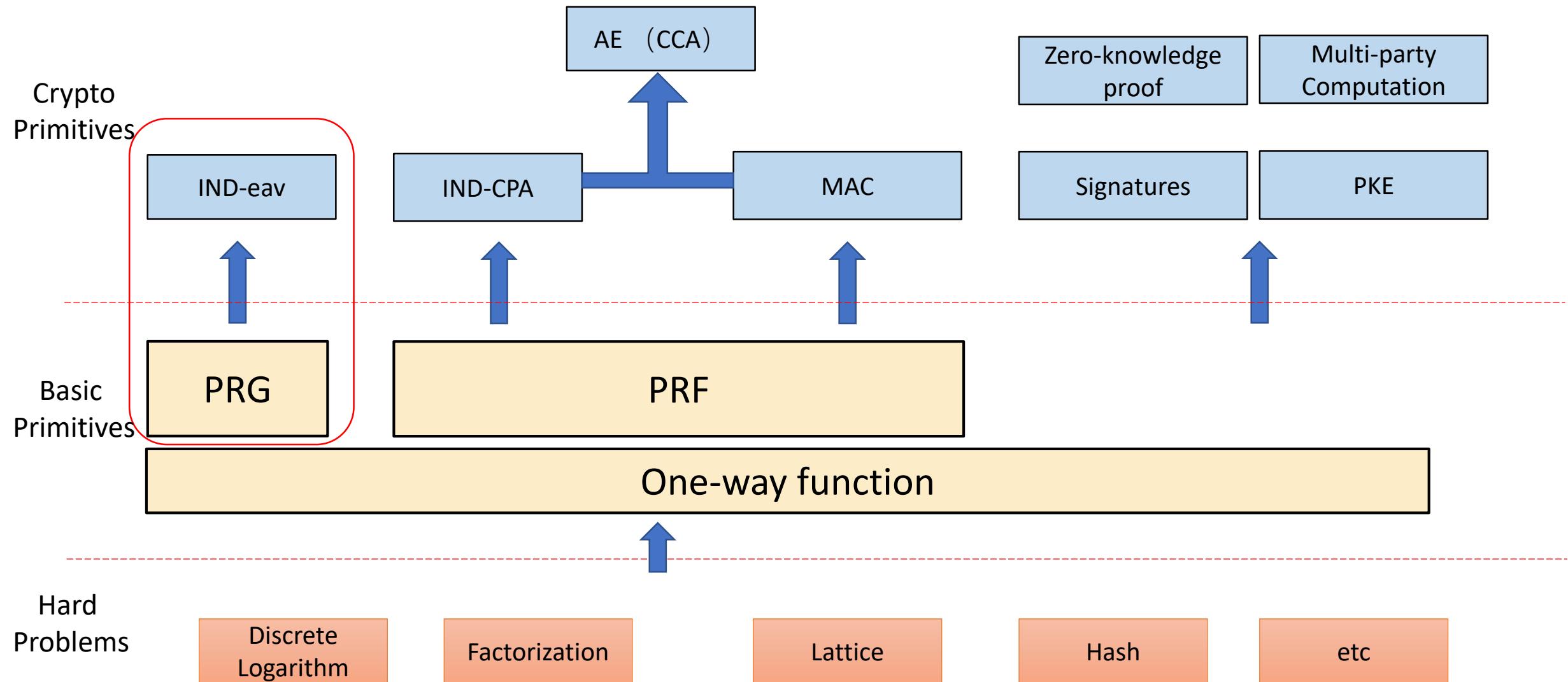
Π1. Gen: $K \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^k$

Π1. Enc(K, M): $C = G(K) \oplus M$

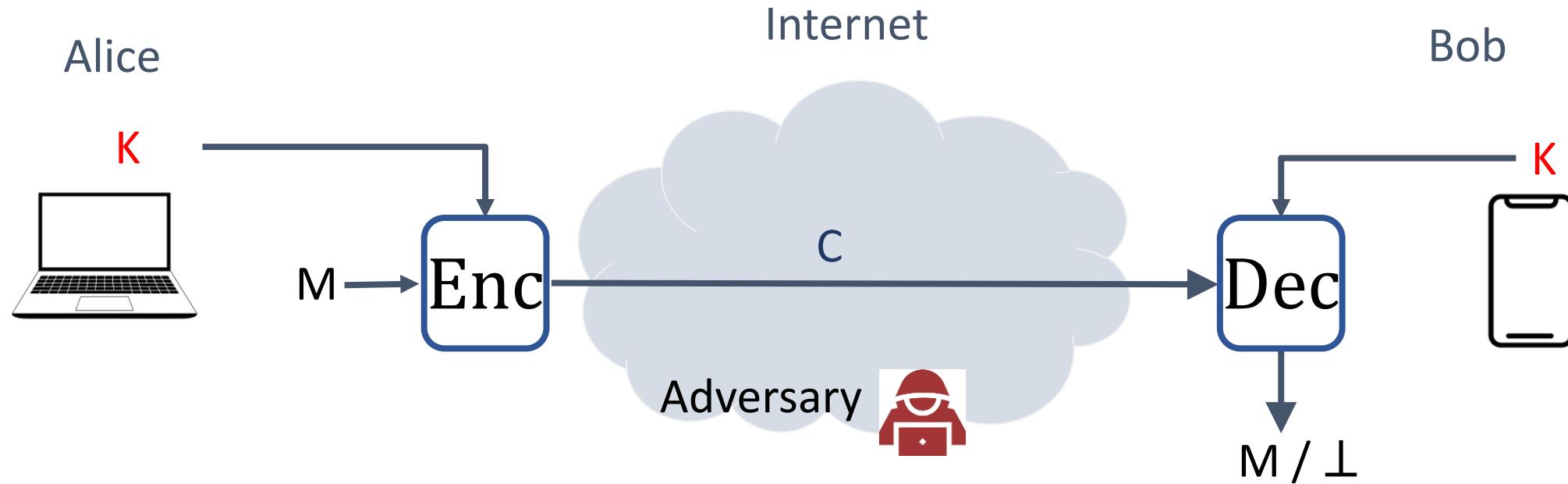
Π1. Enc(K, C): $M = G(K) \oplus C$



Big picture of Cryptography



Symmetric-key cryptography



Enc : encryption algorithm (public)

Dec : decryption algorithm (public)

K : shared key between Alice and Bob

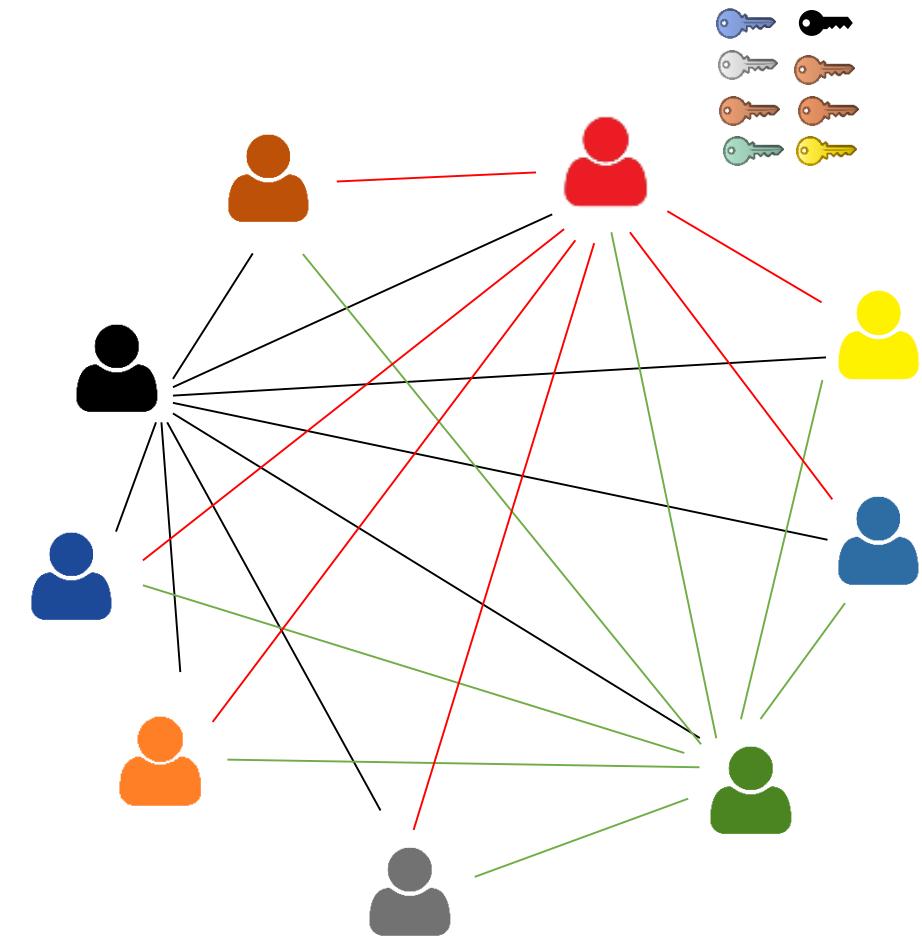
Ignore for now: How to achieve this??

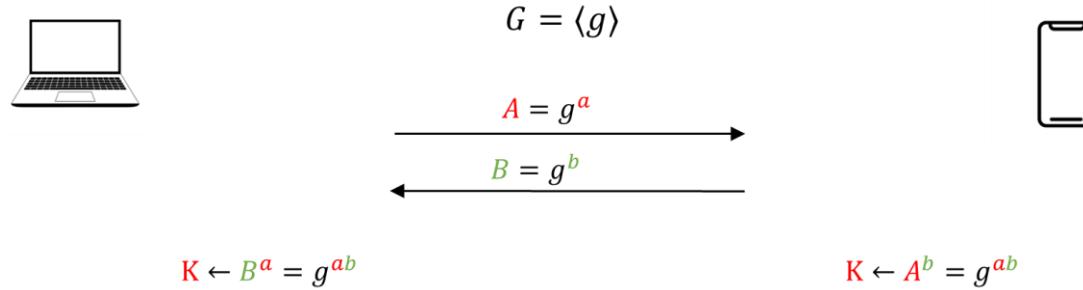
Drawback of symmetric key

- One user needs to store N symmetric keys when communicating with N other users

- $\frac{N(N-1)}{2} = \mathcal{O}(N^2)$ keys in total

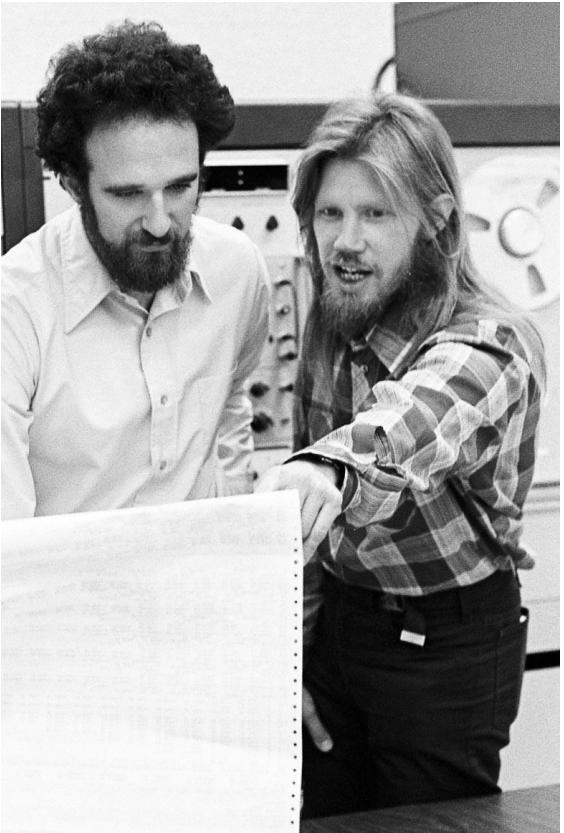
- Difficult to store and manage so many keys securely





Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Diffie-Hellman 1976 [New Directions in Cryptography](#)



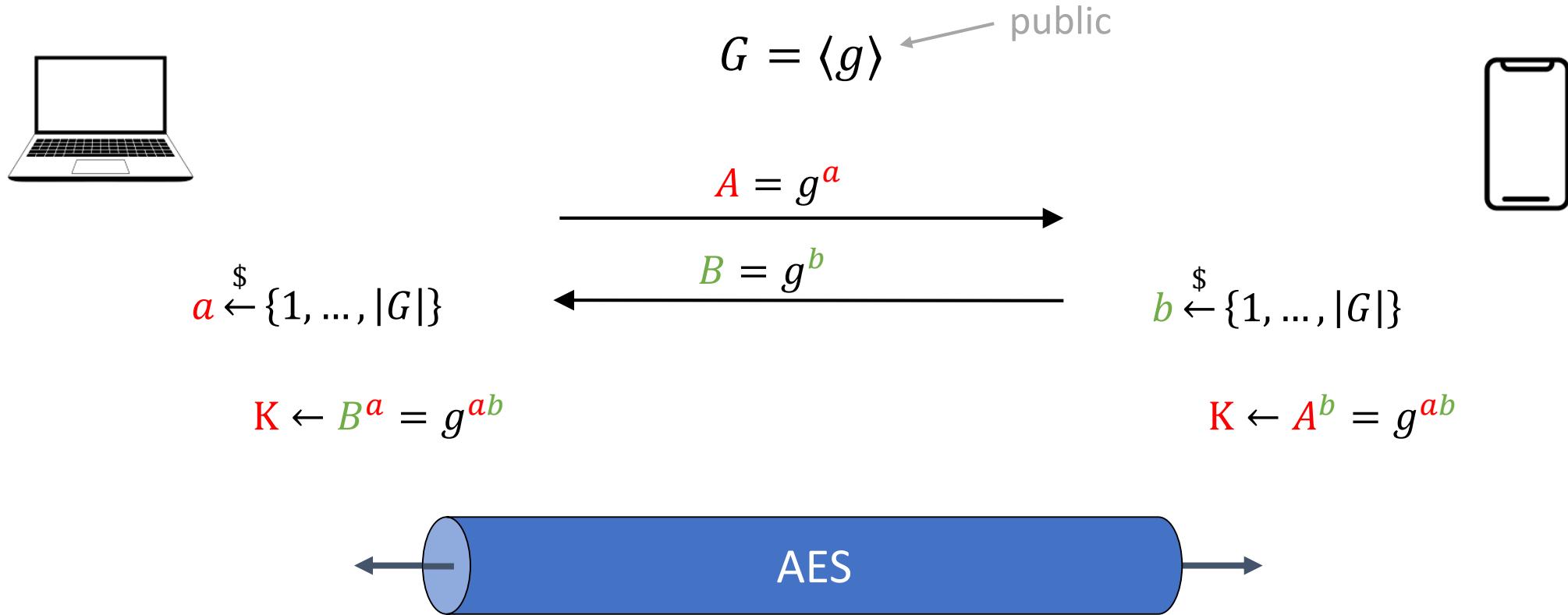
IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON INFORMATION THEORY, VOL. IT-22, NO. 6, NOVEMBER 1976

New Directions in Cryptography

Invited Paper

WHITFIELD DIFFIE AND MARTIN E. HELLMAN, MEMBER, IEEE

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



Examples:

$$G = (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$$

$$G = (E(\mathbf{Z}_p), +)$$

$G = (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$ preliminary

(integers) $\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

(integers “residue mod n ”) $\mathbf{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1\}$

(integers “residue mod p ”) $\mathbf{Z}_p = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p - 1\}$ $\mathbf{Z}_p^* = \mathbf{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ p is a prime

Examples:

$$\mathbf{Z}_{11} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

Define Group

Definition: A **group** (G, \circ) is a set G together with a binary operation \circ satisfying the following axioms.

1: $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$ for all $a, b, c \in G$ (associativity)

2: $\exists e \in G$ such that $e \circ a = a \circ e = a$ for all $a \in G$ (identity)

3: $\forall a \in G$ there exists $a^{-1} \in G$ such that $a \circ a^{-1} = a^{-1} \circ a = e$ (inverse)

A group is **commutative** if: $a \circ b = b \circ a$ for all $a, b \in G$

The **order** of a group is the number of elements in G , denoted $|G|$

Examples

Definition: A group (G, \circ) ...

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| 1: $(a \circ b) \circ c = a \circ (b \circ c)$ | (associativity) |
| 2: $\exists e \in G: e \circ a = a \circ e = a$ | (identity) |
| 3: $\exists a^{-1} \in G: a \circ a^{-1} = a^{-1} \circ a = e$ | (inverse) |

Groups

$$(\mathbf{Z}, +) \quad e = 0 \quad "3^{-1}" = -3$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_n, +_n) \quad e = 0 \quad "3^{-1}" = x: \quad 3 + x \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot_p) \quad e = 1 \\ "3^{-1}" = x: \quad 3 \cdot x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Not groups

$$(\mathbf{Z}, \cdot) \quad 2^{-1} = ? \quad (\mathbf{Z}, -) \quad (1 - 2) - 3 \neq 1 - (2 - 3)$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_n, \cdot_n) \quad 2x = 1 \pmod{4}?$$

Group arithmetic

$$g^0 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} e$$

$$g^n \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{g \circ g \circ \cdots \circ g}_n$$

$$g^{-n} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (g^{-1})^n$$

(\mathbf{Z}_7^*, \cdot)

$$3^5 \bmod 7 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 = 81 \cdot 3 \bmod 7 = 5$$

Fact: $g^n g^m = \underbrace{g \circ \cdots \circ g}_n \circ \underbrace{g \circ \cdots \circ g}_m = g^{n+m}$

Fact: $(g^n)^m = g^{nm} = (g^m)^n$

Cyclic groups

Definition: A group (G, \circ) is **cyclic** if there exists $g \in G$ such that

$$G = \{ g^i \mid i \in \mathbf{Z} \} = \{ \dots, g^{-2}, g^{-1}, g^0, g^1, g^2, g^3, \dots \}$$

Element g is called a **generator** for G and we write $(G, \circ) = \langle g \rangle$

Examples:

$$(\mathbf{Z}, +) = \langle 1 \rangle$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_n, +_n) = \langle 1 \rangle$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) = \langle a \rangle$$

$$(\mathbf{Z}_7^*, \cdot) = \langle 3 \rangle = \{3^0, 3^1, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5\} = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\}$$

$$= \langle 5 \rangle = \{5^0, 5^1, 5^2, 5^3, 5^4, 5^5\} = \{1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3\}$$

$$\neq \langle 2 \rangle = \{2^0, 2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\} = \{1, 2, 4, 1, 2, 4\} = \{1, 2, 4\}$$

Cyclic groups

Theorem: if (G, \circ) is a finite group, then for all $g \in G$:

$$g^{|G|} = e$$

Proof (finite cyclic groups):

$$|G| = |\langle g \rangle| = n$$

$$\overbrace{e \quad g^1 \quad g^2 \quad g^3 \quad \dots \quad g^{n-1} \quad g^n \quad g^{n+1} \quad g^{n+2} \quad \dots}^G$$

$$g^n = g^3 \implies g^{n-3} = e \implies g^j = e \quad j < n \quad \text{contradiction!}$$

Corollary I: $g^i = g^{i \bmod n} = g^{i \bmod |G|}$

$$\begin{aligned}(\mathbf{Z}_7^*, \cdot) &= \langle 3 \rangle = \{3^0, 3^1, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5\} = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\} \\&= \langle 5 \rangle = \{5^0, 5^1, 5^2, 5^3, 5^4, 5^5\} = \{1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3\} \\&\neq \langle 2 \rangle = \{2^0, 2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\} = \{1, 2, 4, 1, 2, 4\} = \{1, 2, 4\}\end{aligned}$$

$\langle 2 \rangle$ is a sub-group of (\mathbf{Z}_7^*, \cdot) with order 3

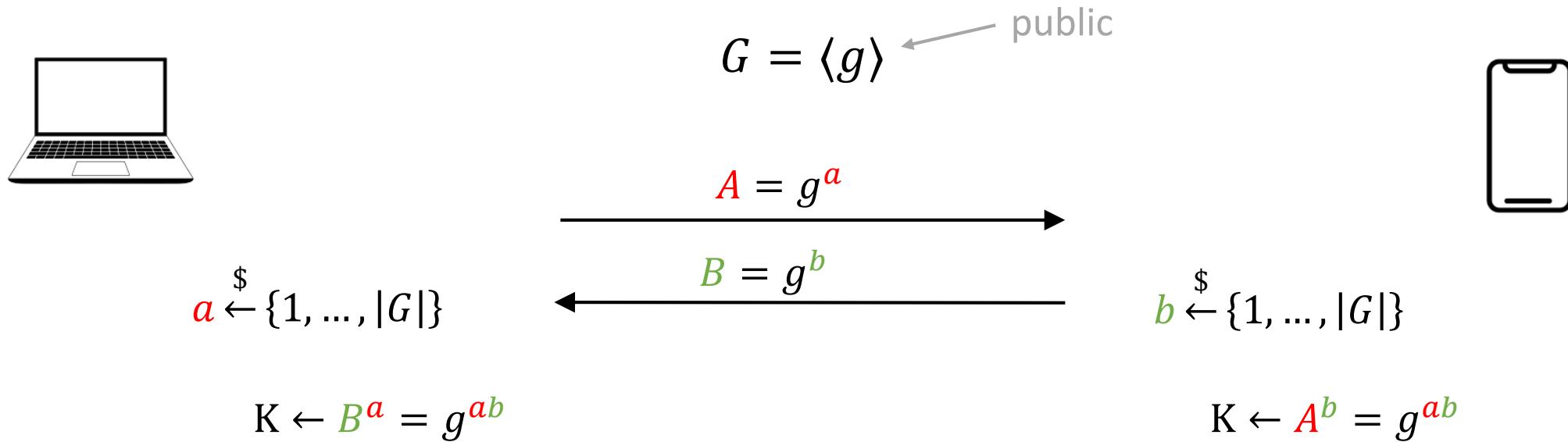
Suppose $p = 2q + 1$, with q being prime. (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) has a sub-group $\langle g \rangle$ of order q
Denoted by $\langle g \rangle < \mathbf{Z}_p^*$

Example: $\mathbf{Z}_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$

$$11 = 2 \cdot 5 + 1$$

For $g = 3, 4, 5, 9$, $\langle 3 \rangle = \langle 4 \rangle = \langle 5 \rangle = \langle 9 \rangle = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\} < \mathbf{Z}_{11}^*$

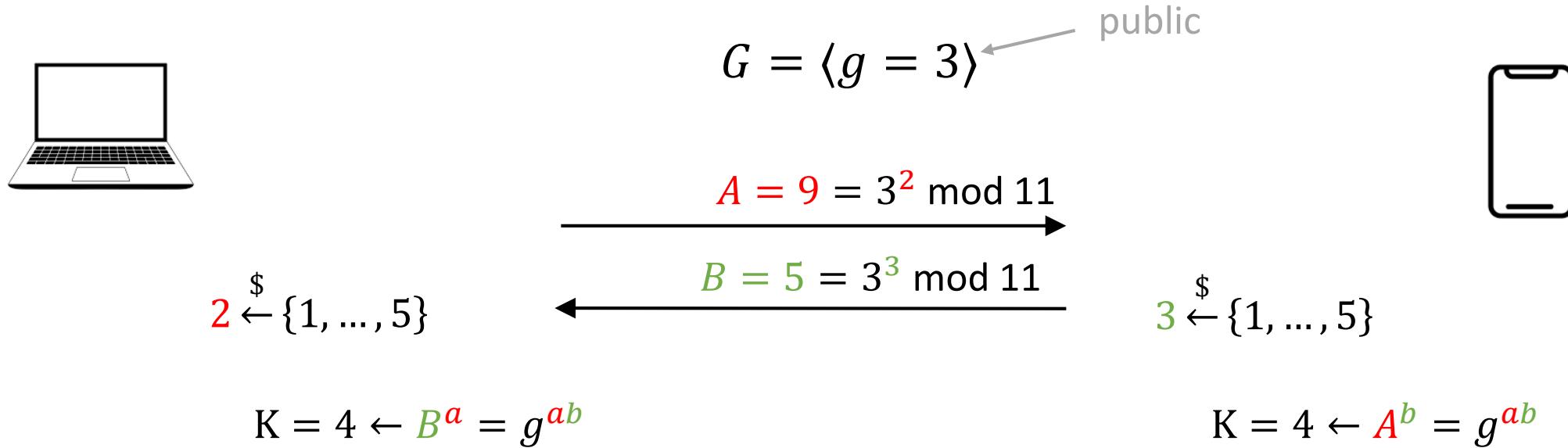
Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



Examples:

$$G = (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

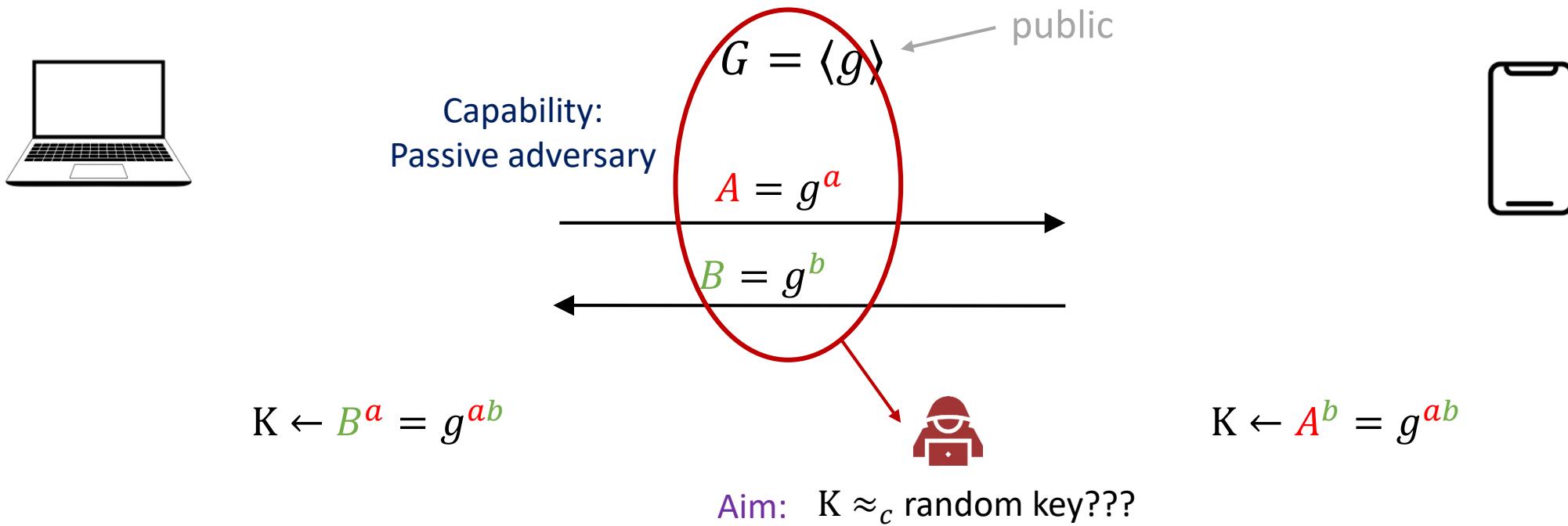


Exp. $G = (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$, $p = 11$, $g = 3$

To be secure: length p must be large

<https://www.rfc-editor.org/rfc/rfc2409#section-6.2; rfc3526#page-3>

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



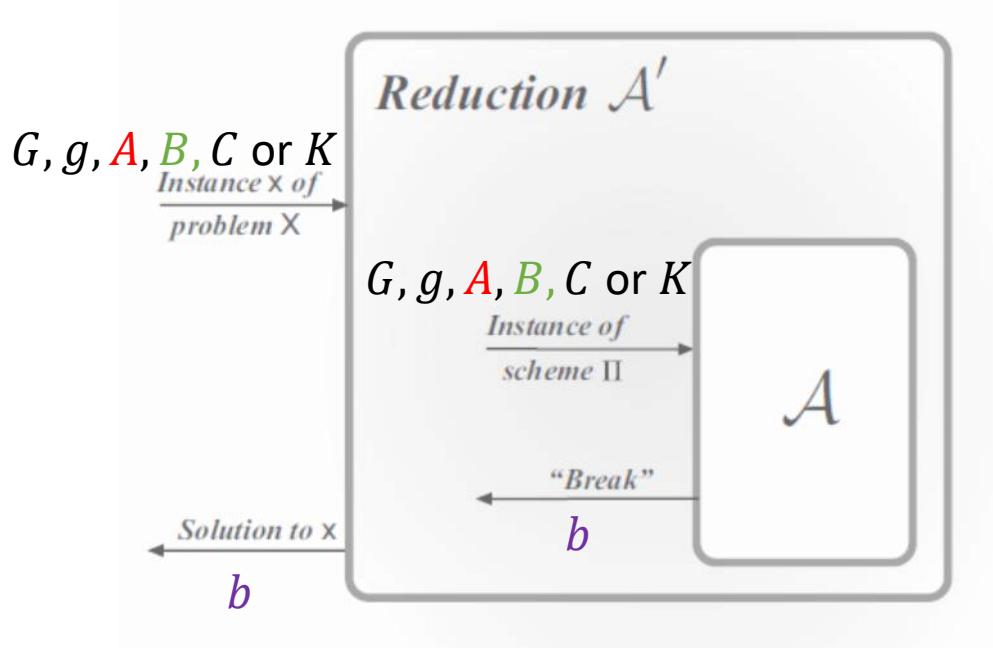
Security (given G, g, A, B):

- Must be hard to distinguish $K \leftarrow g^{ab}$ from random key

Proof security under DH assumption

DDH assumption: given G, g, A, B :

- Must be hard to distinguish $K \leftarrow g^{ab}$ from random key C



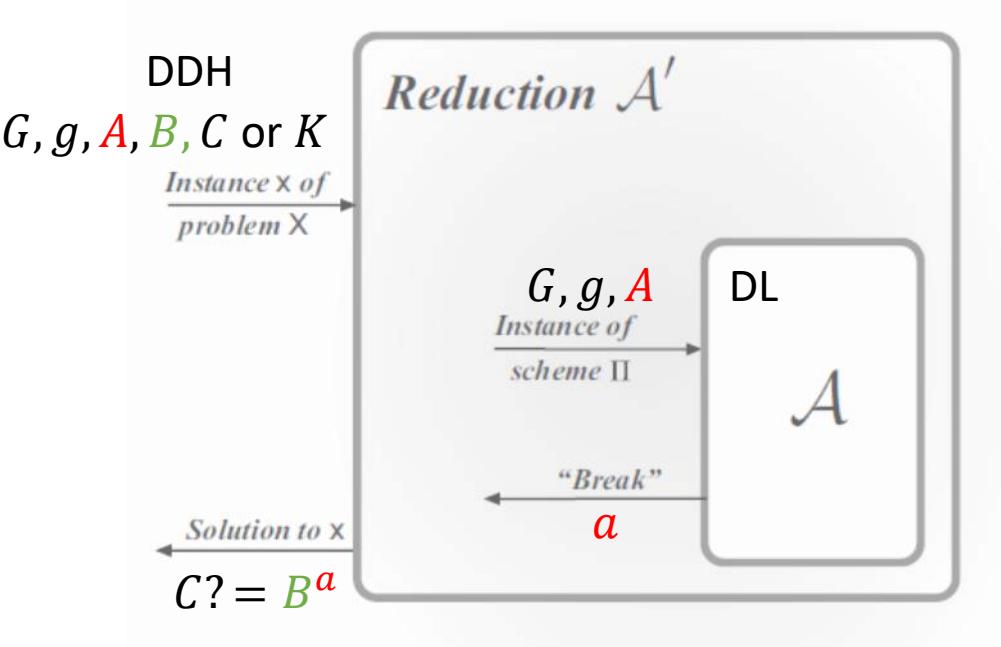
Discrete logarithm (DL) assumption

Discrete logarithm assumption: **given** G, g, A :

- it is hard to find a such that $A = g^a$

DDH assumption: **given** G, g, A, B :

- Must be hard to distinguish $K \leftarrow g^{ab}$ from random key C



$$\text{DL} \geq \text{DDH}$$

To let DDH assumption holds, $|<g>|$ should be large

Diffie-Hellman - (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) -group 14 of RFC 3526

$p = 32317006071311007300338913926423828248817941241140239112842009751400741706634354222619689417363569347117901737909704191754605873209195028853758986185622153212175412514901774520270235796078236248884246189477587641$
 $1059286460994117232454266225221932305409190376805242355191256797158701170010580558776510388618472802579760549035697325615261670813393617995413364765916036831789672907317838458968063967190097720219416864722587103$
 $141133642931953619347163653320971707744822798858856369208645296636077250268955505928362751121174096972998068410554359584866583291642136218231078990999448652468262416972035911852507045361090559$

$$= 2 \cdot q + 1$$

$$\langle g \rangle = \langle 2 \rangle < (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$$

413349727649786974768881314779536915905983028880487891
 41980374225868022299895295637179960493851383113974708
 273495908499817923294866040090426152978689798973304849
 219278312251775957842658890558396968080317194529076825
 133291064147145735956103703231581718745432645335363742
 424060090852307081678111805222242680612035529830764495
 485439771195714566412738768210130228507014668533507346
 345888007533144183458429151390869077843544589054552944
 061903282023858937253321947252641343640598633640822291
 607493414329101988880446597470235580161682521673069806
 056479730652957743227853817938415980134029582352791558
 0613351187034853959149

$$A = 2 \mod p$$

413349727649786974768881314779536915905983028880487891
 41980374225868022299895295637179960493851383113974708
 273495908499817923294866040090426152978689798973304849
 219278312251775957842658890558396968080317194529076825
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 061903282023858937253321947252641343640598633640822291
 607493414329101988880446597470235580161682521673069806
 056479730652957743227853817938415980134029582352791558
 0613351187034853959149

$$\$ \leftarrow \{1 \dots q\}$$

472378975965396582518832256335645318761170736096535968
 578806699922307571504049546322474484958382040043948528
 92967126950710924526617462128447779937918964628789631
 234815227262706932379205585679032119924889727134729827
 728487445226408030229099280991365392848362864817672241
 305932059800017497039892171592547336108905906405436246
 698762066178415542717707197913865635031873123546296748
 607038214047391101042860420632472097555061952006449890
 561683478362740082015762982050288677324025573804780149
 80309799207390616115837997519340007756811976311904067
 316837279447099419563702451150816207832561335151596560
 057242643342201291440

$$B = 2 \mod p$$

472378975965396582518832256335645318761170736096535968
 578806699922307571504049546322474484958382040043948528
 92967126950710924526617462128447779937918964628789631
 234815227262706932379205585679032119924889727134729827
 728487445226408030229099280991365392848362864817672241
 305932059800017497039892171592547336108905906405436246
 698762066178415542717707197913865635031873123546296748
 607038214047391101042860420632472097555061952006449890
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 057242643342201291440

$$\$ \leftarrow \{1 \dots q\}$$

Corollary I: $g^i = g^{i \mod |H|}$

413349727649786974768881314779536915905983028880487891
 41980374225868022299895295637179960493851383113974708
 273495908499817923294866040090426152978689798973304849
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 061903282023858937253321947252641343640598633640822291
 607493414329101988880446597470235580161682521673069806
 056479730652957743227853817938415980134029582352791558
 0613351187034853959149

X

472378975965396582518832256335645318761170736096535968
 578806699922307571504049546322474484958382040043948528
 92967126950710924526617462128447779937918964628789631
 234815227262706932379205585679032119924889727134729827
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 698762066178415542717707197913865635031873123546296748
 607038214047391101042860420632472097555061952006449890
 561683478362740082015762982050288677324025573804780149
 80309799207390616115837997519340007756811976311904067
 316837279447099419563702451150816207832561335151596560
 057242643342201291440

$$\mod p$$

Demo

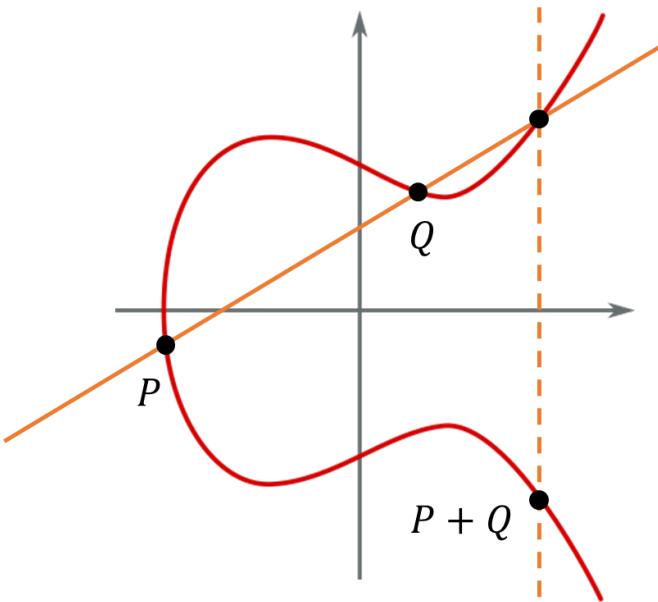
- RFC 3526
- Demonstration using SageMath
- <https://sagecell.sagemath.org/>

Better alternatives to \mathbf{Z}_p^* ?

Elliptic curves

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

$$a, b, x, y \in R$$



- There are elliptic curves defined over \mathbf{Z}_p
- Such that the points on an elliptic curve (+ a point at infinity) form a group of order $\sim p^2$
- Denoted by $(E(\mathbf{Z}_p), +)$

Cryptographic groups in practice

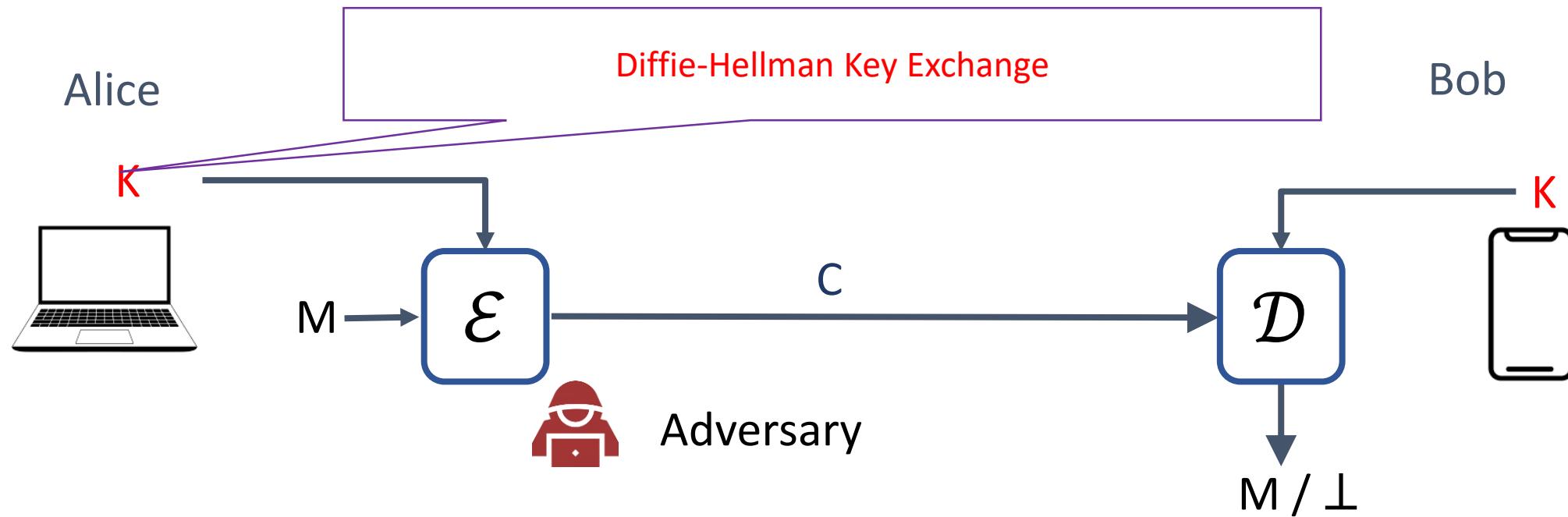
- (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) groups:
 - **TLS 1.3:** five specific groups allowed
 - size $\approx 2^{2048}, 2^{3072}, 2^{4096}, 2^{6144}, 2^{8192}$ (RFC 7919)
 - **IKEv2** (IPsec key exchange protocol): MODP groups
 - size $\approx 2^{768}, 2^{1024}, 2^{1536}, 2^{2048}, 2^{3072}, 2^{4096}, 2^{6144}, 2^{8192}$ (RFC 7296 and RFC 3526)
 - all p 's are **safe primes** (i.e., of the form $p = 2q + 1$ where q is prime)
- $(E(\mathbf{Z}_p), +)$ groups
 - NIST groups: P-224, P-256, P-384, P-521
 - Curve25519 ($E : y^2 = x^3 + 486662x^2 + x$ and $p = 2^{255} - 19$) (Daniel J. Bernstein)
 - Curve448 ($E : y^2 + x^2 = 1 - 39081x^2y^2$ and $p = 2^{448} - 2^{224} - 1$) (Mike Hamburg)

A short summary

- Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange could help to share a secret
- Using group (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) or $(E(\mathbf{Z}_p), +)$
- DH problem is the underlying hard problem

Public key encryption

Diffie-Hellman then Symmetric-key cryptography

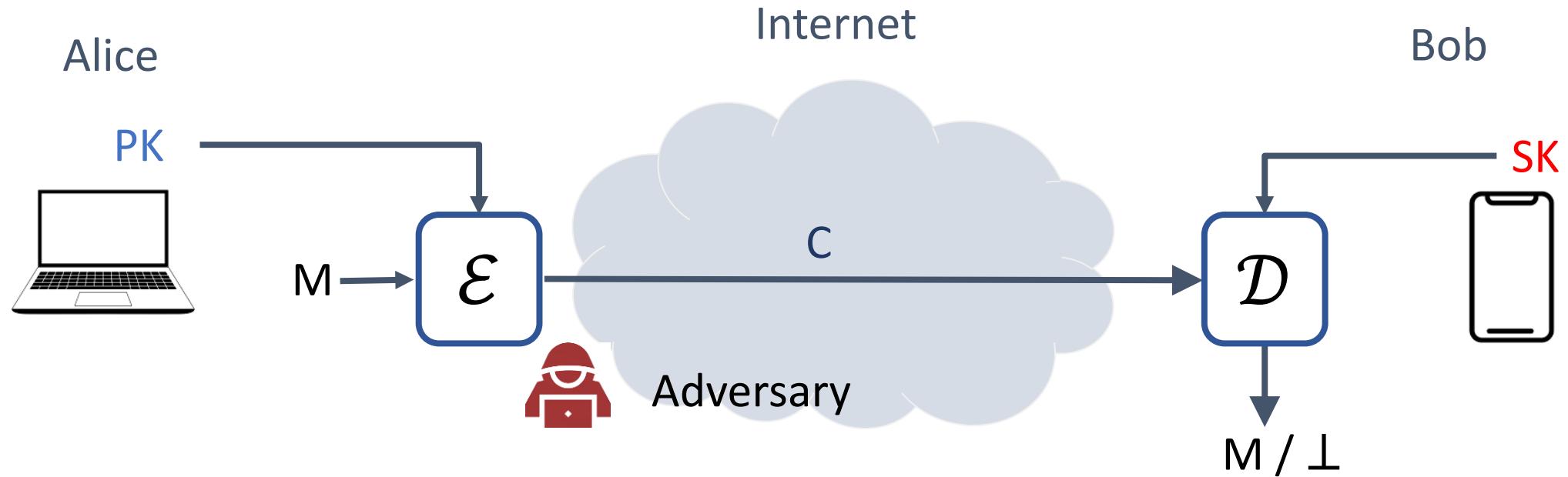


Enc: encryption algorithm (public)

K : shared key between Alice and Bob

Dec: decryption algorithm (public)

Public-key Encryption directly???



Enc: encryption algorithm (public)

Dec : decryption algorithm (public)

PK : public key of Bob (public)

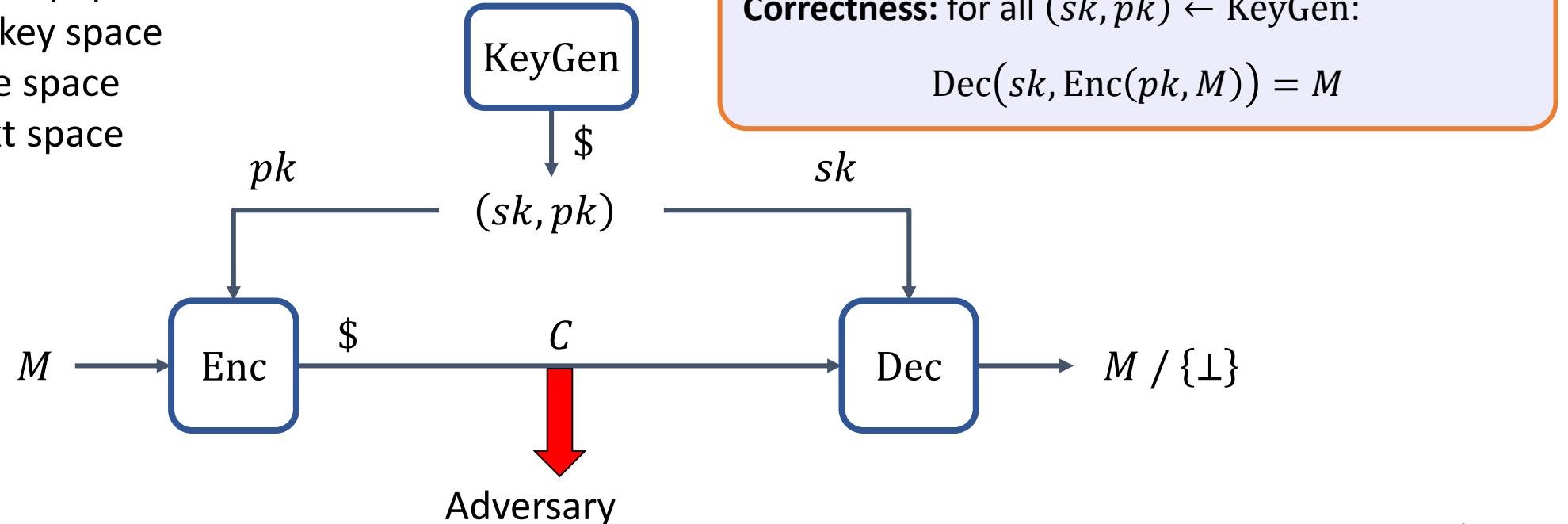
SK : secret key (secret)

Public-key encryption – syntax

A **public-key encryption scheme** is a tuple $\Sigma = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ of algorithms

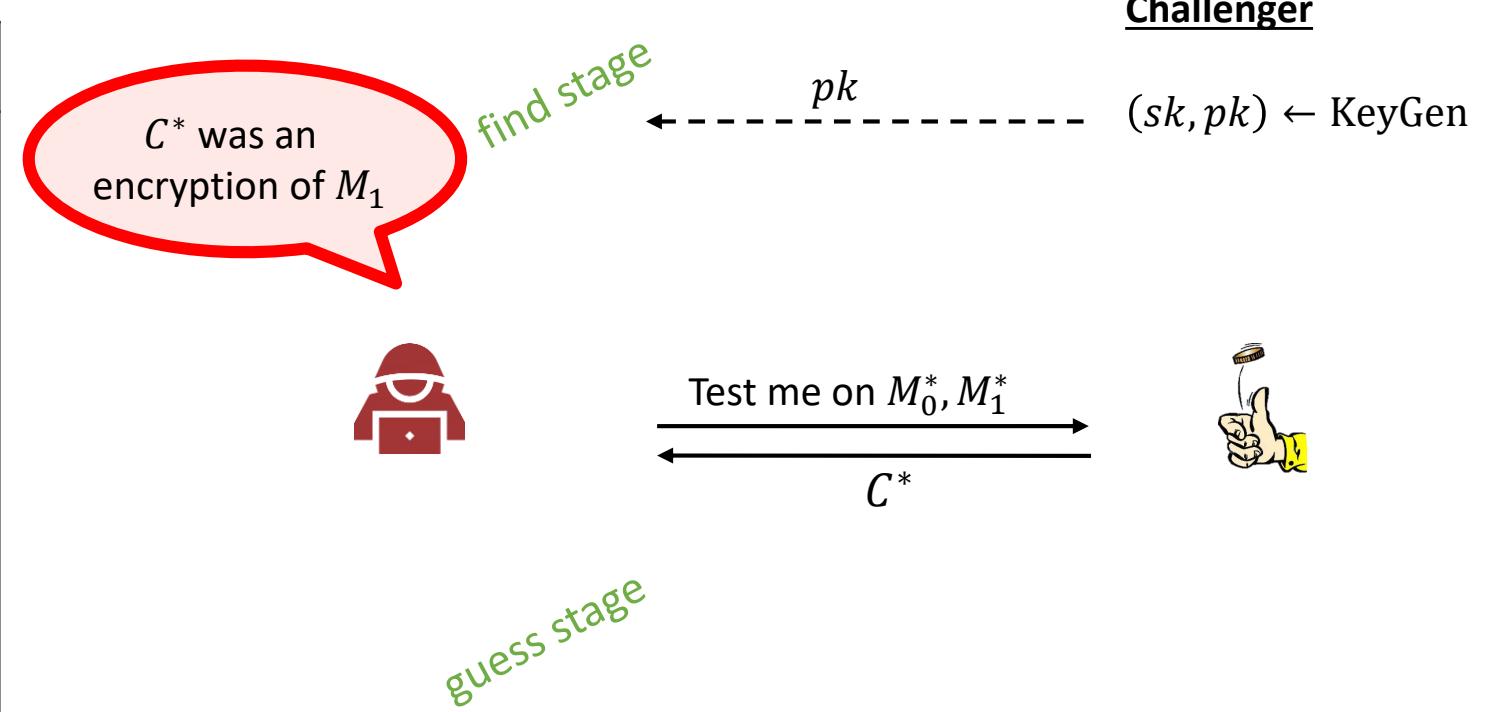
$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Enc} : \mathcal{PK} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} & \text{Dec} : \mathcal{SK} \times \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M} \cup \{\perp\} \\ (sk, pk) \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KeyGen} & \text{Enc}(pk, M) = \text{Enc}_{pk}(M) = C \\ \text{Enc}(pk, M) = \text{Enc}_{pk}(M) = C & \text{Dec}(sk, C) = \text{Dec}_{SK}(C) = M / \perp \end{array}$$

- \mathcal{SK} – private key space
- \mathcal{PK} – public key space
- \mathcal{M} – message space
- \mathcal{C} – ciphertext space



Public-key encryption – security: IND-CPA

$\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(A)$
1. $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$
2. $(sk, pk) \xleftarrow{\$} \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$
3. $M_0^*, M_1^* \leftarrow A(pk)$ // find stage
4. if $ M_0^* \neq M_1^* $ then
5. return \perp
6. $C^* \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Enc}(pk, M_b^*)$
7. $b' \leftarrow A(pk, C^*)$ // guess stage
8. return $b' \stackrel{?}{=} b$



Definition: The **IND-CPA-advantage** of an adversary A is

$$\text{Adv}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(A) = \left| 2 \cdot \Pr \left[\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(A) \Rightarrow \text{true} \right] - 1 \right|$$

Public-key encryption – security: IND-CCA

$\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cca}}(A)$

```
1.  $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$ 
2.  $(sk, pk) \xleftarrow{\$} \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$ 
3.  $M_0^*, M_1^* \leftarrow A^{\mathcal{D}_{sk}(\cdot)}(pk)$  // find stage
4. if  $|M_0^*| \neq |M_1^*|$  then
5.   return  $\perp$ 
6.  $C^* \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Enc}(pk, M_b^*)$ 
7.  $b' \leftarrow A^{\mathcal{D}_{sk}(\cdot)}(pk, C^*)$  // guess stage
8. return  $b' \stackrel{?}{=} b$ 
```

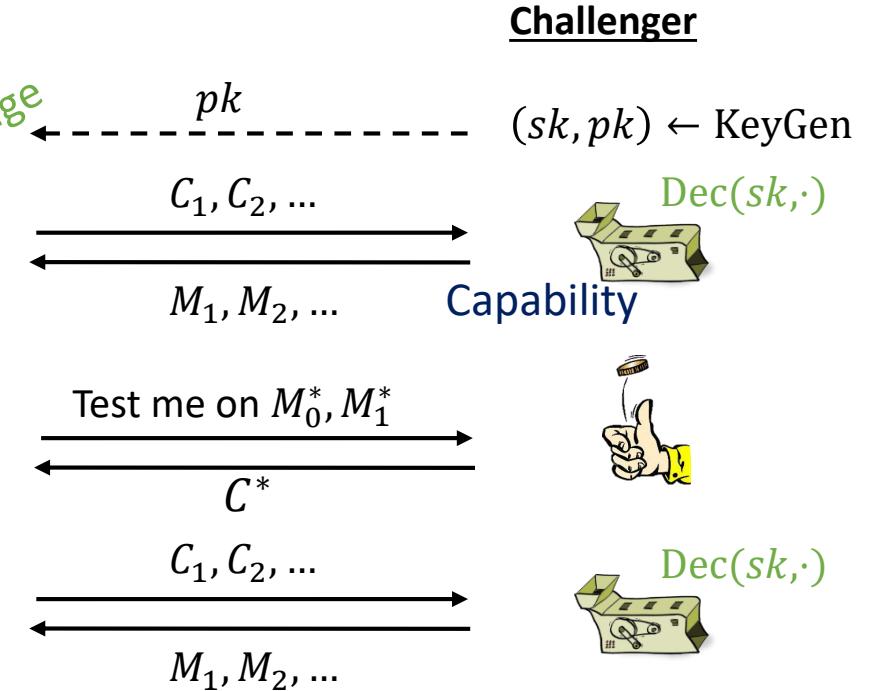
$\mathcal{D}_{sk}(C)$

```
-----  
1. if  $C = C^*$  the // cheating!  
2.   return  $\perp$   
3.   return  $\Sigma.\text{Dec}(sk, C)$ 
```

C^* was an
encryption of M_1



guess stage

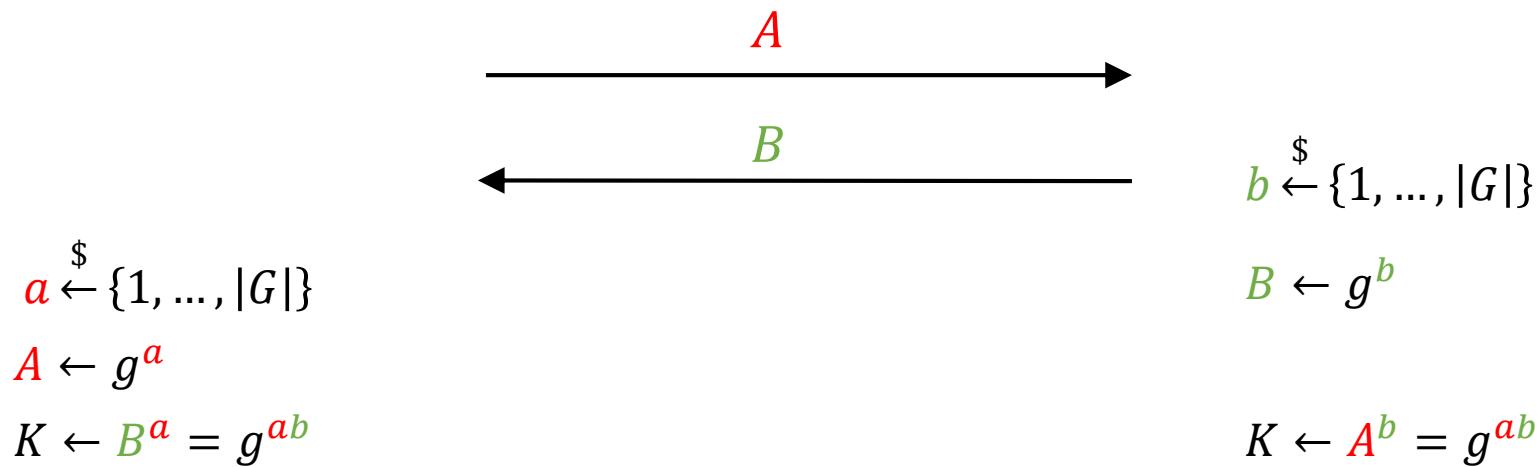


Definition: The **IND-CCA-advantage** of an adversary A is

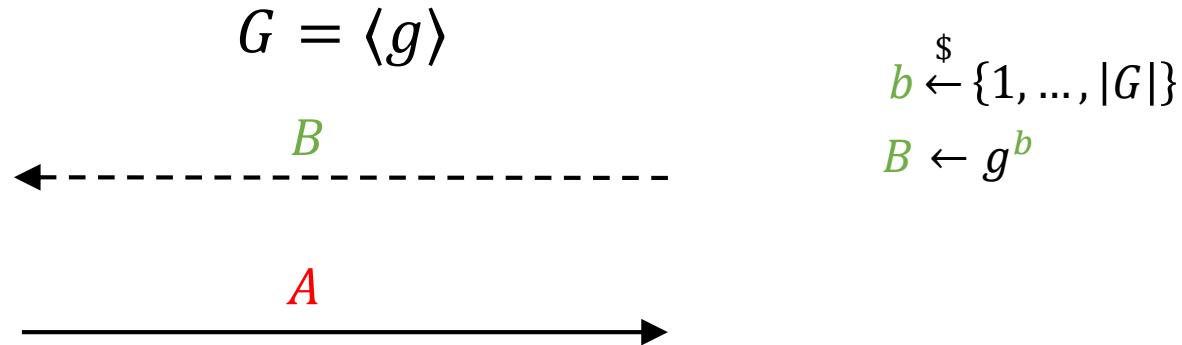
$$\text{Adv}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cca}}(A) = |2 \cdot \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{ind-cca}}(A) \Rightarrow \text{true}] - 1|$$

Scheme ElGamal

$$G = \langle g \rangle$$



ElGamal



$$\textcolor{red}{a} \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$$

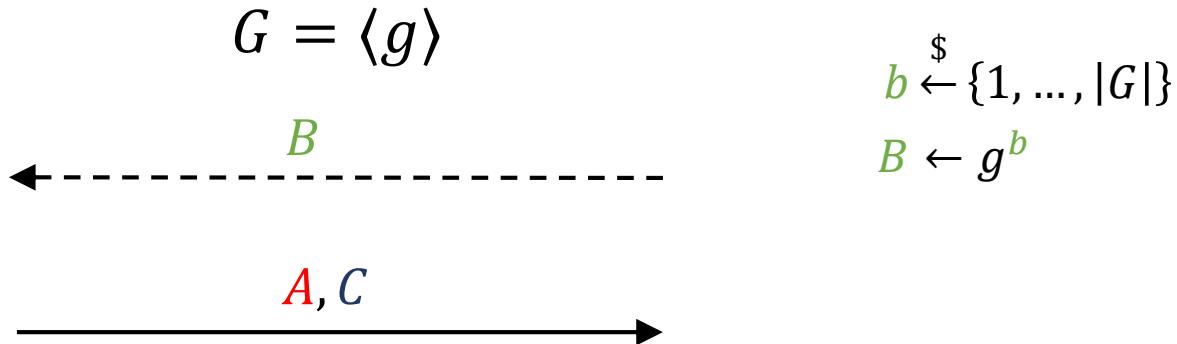
$$A \leftarrow g^{\textcolor{red}{a}}$$

$$K \leftarrow B^{\textcolor{red}{a}} = g^{\textcolor{red}{a}\textcolor{green}{b}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcolor{green}{b} &\xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, |G|\} \\ B &\leftarrow g^{\textcolor{green}{b}} \end{aligned}$$

$$K \leftarrow \textcolor{red}{A}^{\textcolor{green}{b}} = g^{\textcolor{red}{a}\textcolor{green}{b}}$$

ElGamal



$$a \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$$

$$A \leftarrow g^a$$

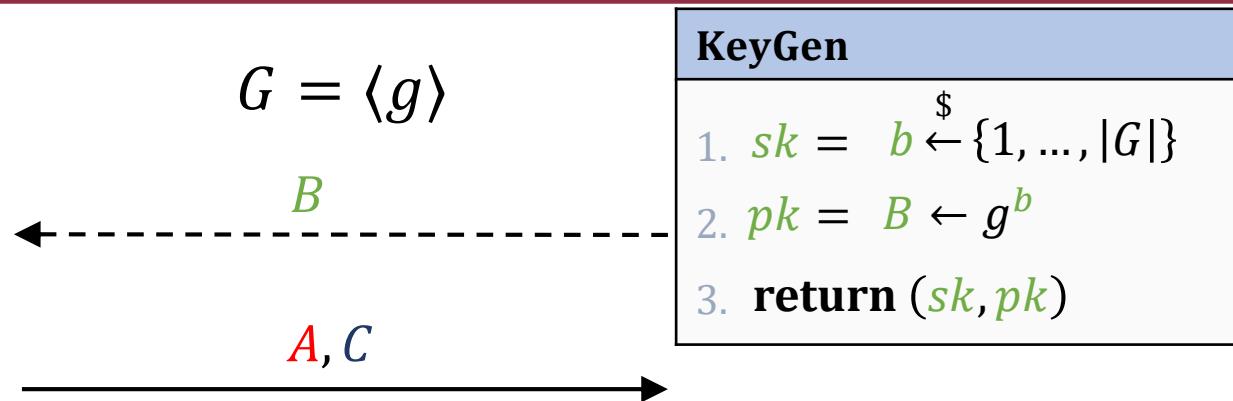
$$K \leftarrow B^a = g^{ab}$$

$$C \leftarrow K \cdot M$$

$$K \leftarrow A^b = g^{ab}$$

$$M \leftarrow C/K$$

ElGamal



$$a \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$$

$$A \leftarrow g^a$$

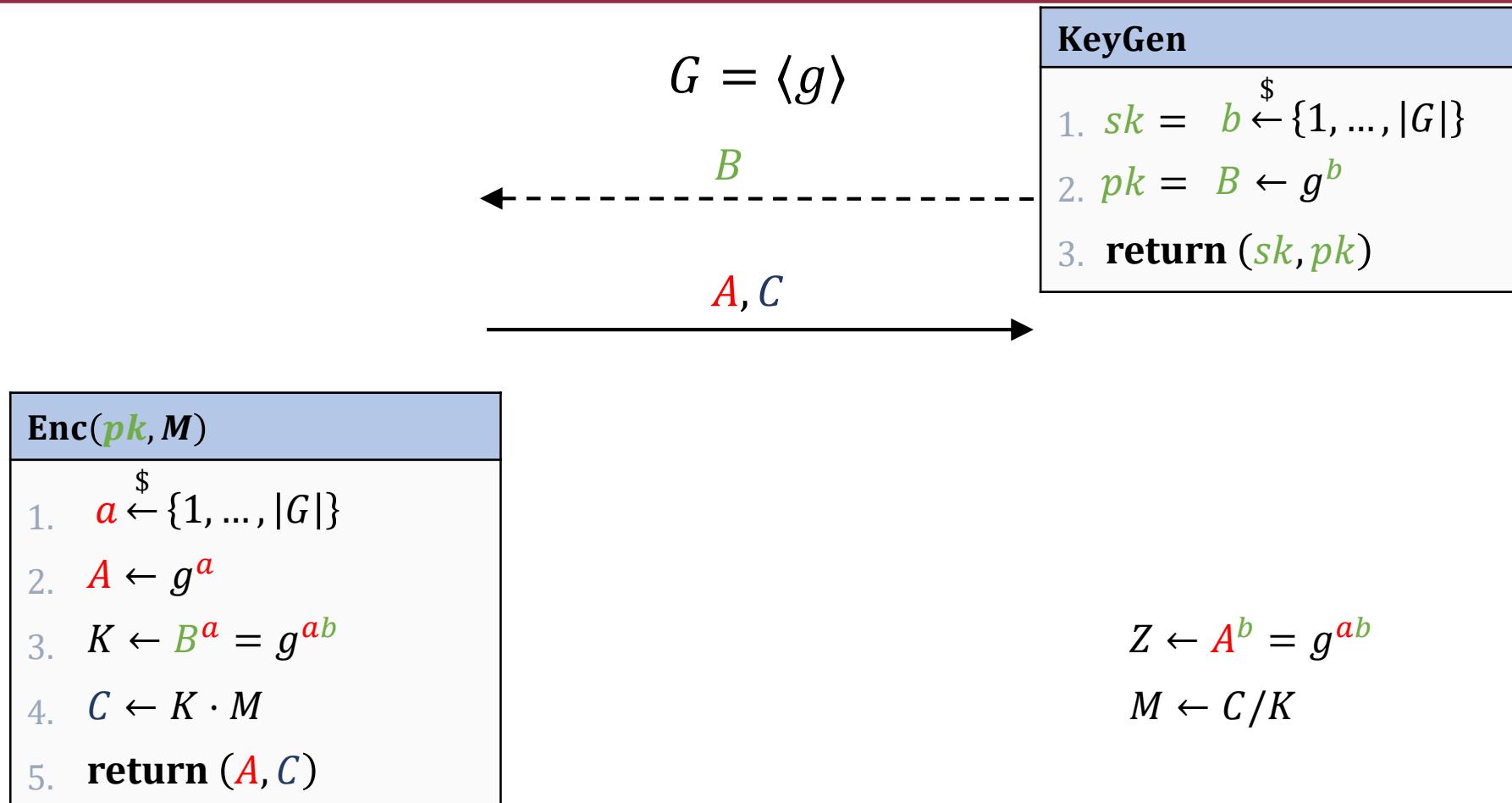
$$K \leftarrow B^a = g^{ab}$$

$$C \leftarrow K \cdot M$$

$$K \leftarrow A^b = g^{ab}$$

$$M \leftarrow C/K$$

ElGamal



ElGamal

ElGamal.Enc : $G \times G \rightarrow G \times \mathcal{C}$

ElGamal.Dec : $\mathbb{Z}_p \times G \times G \rightarrow G$

$$G = \langle g \rangle$$

B

A, C

KeyGen

1. $sk = b \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$
2. $pk = B \leftarrow g^b$
3. **return** (sk, pk)

Enc(pk, M)

1. $a \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$
2. $A \leftarrow g^a$
3. $K \leftarrow B^a = g^{ab}$
4. $C \leftarrow K \cdot M$
5. **return** (A, C)

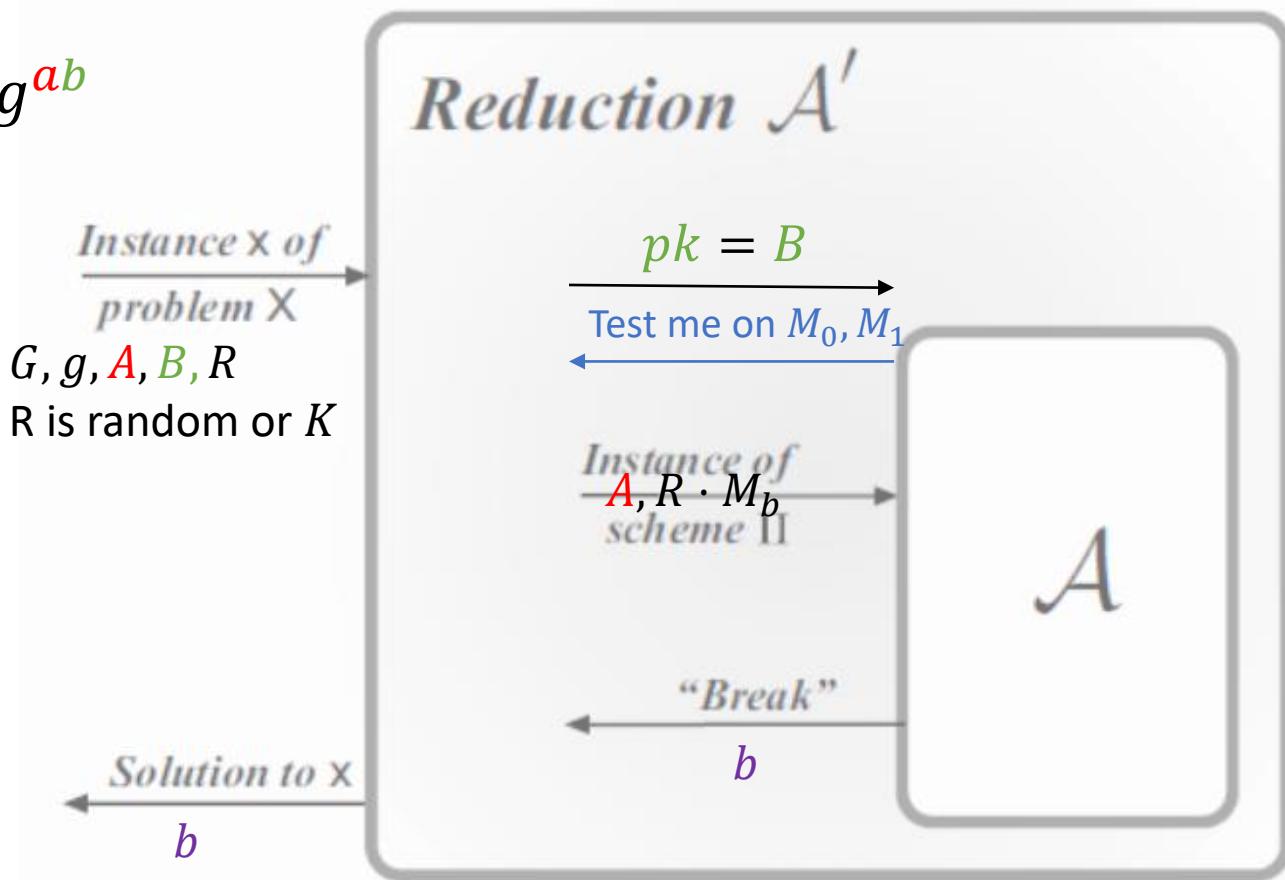
Dec(sk, C)

1. $Z \leftarrow A^b = g^{ab}$
2. $M \leftarrow C/Z$
3. **return** M

ElGamal is IND-CPA under DDH assumption

DDH assumption: given G, g, A, B :

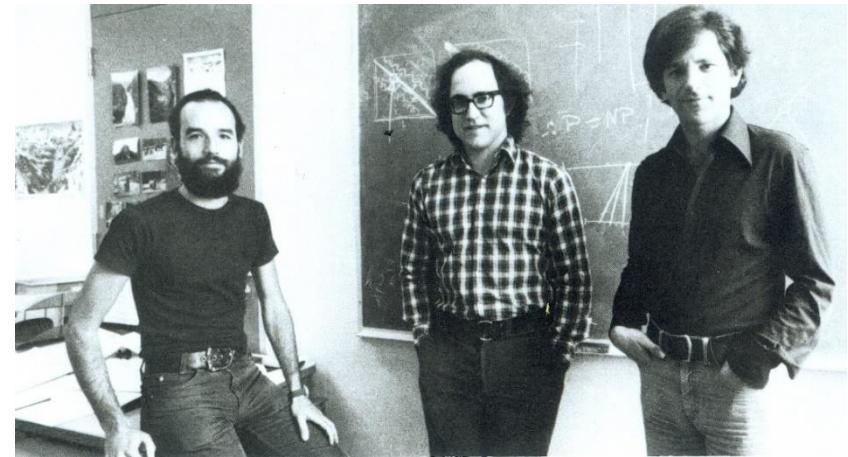
- Must be hard to distinguish $K \leftarrow g^{ab}$ from random key R



RSA in 1977

- The RSA encryption scheme

$$c = E(m) = m^e \pmod{N}$$



Adi Shamir

Ron Rivest

Leonard Adleman

The group (\mathbf{Z}_n^*, \cdot)

$$\mathbf{Z}_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$$

(\mathbf{Z}_p, \cdot) is *not* a group!

$$\mathbf{Z}_p^* = \{1, \dots, p - 1\}$$

(\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) is a group!

$$\mathbf{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$$

(\mathbf{Z}_n, \cdot) is *not* a group!

$$\mathbf{Z}_n^* \neq \underbrace{\{1, \dots, n - 1\}}_{\mathbf{Z}_n^+}$$

(\mathbf{Z}_n^+, \cdot) is *also not* a group!

$$\mathbf{Z}_n^* = \underbrace{\text{invertible elements in } \mathbf{Z}_n}_{\text{ }} = \{a \in \mathbf{Z}_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$$

(\mathbf{Z}_n^*, \cdot) is a group!

Not invertible	Invertible
2, 4, 5, 6, 8	1, 3, 7, 9

$$\mathbf{Z}_{10}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$$

$$2 \cdot 1 = 2 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 2 = 4 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 3 = 6 \pmod{10}$$

$$1 \cdot 1 = 1 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 4 = 8 \pmod{10}$$

$$3 \cdot 7 = 21 = 1 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 5 = 0 \pmod{10}$$

$$9 \cdot 9 = 81 = 1 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 6 = 2 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 7 = 4 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 8 = 6 \pmod{10}$$

$$2 \cdot 9 = 8 \pmod{10}$$

$$10 = 2 \cdot 5$$

$$2 = 2$$

$$4 = 2 \cdot 2$$

$$5 = 5$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{10}^* = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$$

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2$$

Euler's $\phi(n)$ function

- $\phi(n) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\mathbf{Z}_n^*| = |\{a \in \mathbf{Z}_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}|$

$$\overbrace{1 \cdot p, 2 \cdot p, 3 \cdot p, \dots, (q-1) \cdot p}^{q-1}$$
$$\overbrace{1 \cdot q, 2 \cdot q, 3 \cdot q, \dots, (p-1) \cdot q}^{p-1}$$

- $\phi(p) = p - 1$

- $\phi(p \cdot q) = (p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)$

$$\phi(pq) = \# \text{numbers less than } pq$$

—
#numbers less than pq with $\gcd(x, pq) \neq 1$

$$= (pq - 1) - (q - 1 + p - 1)$$

$$= pq - q - p + 1$$

$$= (p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)$$

- **Note:** $\phi(n) \approx n - 2\sqrt{n} \approx n$

- i.e.: *almost all* integers are invertible for large p, q

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
$\phi(n)$	1	1	2	2	4	2	6	4	6	4	10	4	12	6	8

Euler's Theorem

Theorem: if (G, \circ) is a finite group, then for all $g \in G$:

$$g^{|G|} = e$$

- (\mathbf{Z}_p^*, \cdot) : $|\mathbf{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$ $e = 1$

Fermat's theorem: if p is prime, then for all $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

- (\mathbf{Z}_n^*, \cdot) : $|\mathbf{Z}_n^*| = \phi(n)$ $e = 1$

Euler's theorem: for all positive integers n , if $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ then

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

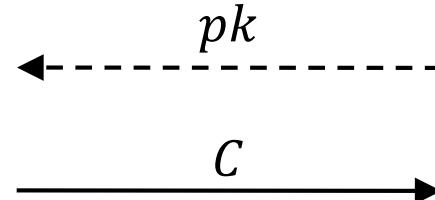
Textbook RSA

$$\text{RSA. Enc} : \overbrace{\mathbf{Z}^+ \times \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*}^{\mathcal{PK}} \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n^*$$

$$\text{RSA. Dec: } \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^* \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n^*$$

\mathcal{SK} \mathcal{C} \mathcal{M}

Enc ($pk = (n, e), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)
1. $C \leftarrow M^e \bmod n$
2. return C



KeyGen

1. $p, q \leftarrow$ two random prime numbers
2. $n \leftarrow p \cdot q$
3. $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
4. choose e such that $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
5. $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
6. $sk \leftarrow d \quad pk \leftarrow (n, e)$
7. **return** (sk, pk)

Dec($sk = d, C \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)

1. $M \leftarrow C^d \bmod n$
2. **return** M

Common choices of e : 3, 17, 65 537

$11_2 \quad 10001_2 \quad 1\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001_2$

Textbook RSA – correctness

Theorem: if (G, \circ) is a finite group, then for all $g \in G$:

$$g^{|G|} = e$$

Euler's theorem: for all $a \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Corollary I: $a^i = a^{i \bmod |G|} = a^{i \bmod \phi(n)}$

$$\text{Dec}(sk, \text{Enc}(pk, M)) = M$$

$$d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n) \Leftrightarrow ed = 1 \bmod \phi(n)$$

$$C^d = M^{ed} = M^{ed \bmod \phi(n)} = M^1 = M \bmod n$$

Fact: RSA also works for $M \in \mathbf{Z}_n$

KeyGen

1. $p, q \overset{\$}{\leftarrow}$ two random prime numbers
2. $n \leftarrow p \cdot q$
3. $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
4. choose e such that $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
5. $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
6. $sk \leftarrow d \quad pk \leftarrow (n, e)$
7. return (sk, pk)

Enc($pk = (n, e), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)

1. $C \leftarrow M^e \bmod n$
2. return C

Dec($sk = d, C \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)

1. $M \leftarrow C^d \bmod n$
2. return M

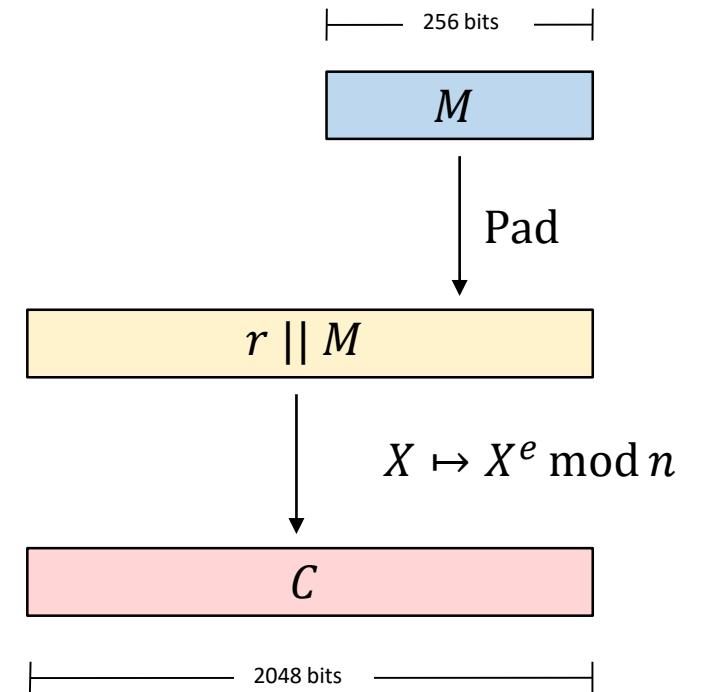
Textbook RSA – security

- Textbook RSA is *not* IND-CPA secure!
 - Deterministic
 - Malleable
- Many other attacks as well*
- Textbook RSA is *not* an encryption scheme!
- So what is it? Answer: a *one-way (trapdoor) permutation*

* <https://crypto.stackexchange.com/questions/20085/which-attacks-are-possible-against-raw-textbook-rsa>

RSA in practice

- Textbook RSA is deterministic \Rightarrow cannot be IND-CPA secure
- How to achieve IND-CPA, IND-CCA?
 - pad message with random data before applying RSA function
 - PKCS#1v1.5 (RFC 2313)
 - RSA-OAEP (RFC 8017)
- RSA encryption not used much in practice anymore
- RSA digital signatures still very common



Hard problems

- RSA problem (RSA): given $pk = (e, n)$ and $C = M^e \text{ mod } n$
find M
- Factoring problem (FACT): given $n = pq$ find p and q
- FACT \geq RSA

Demo RSA encryption

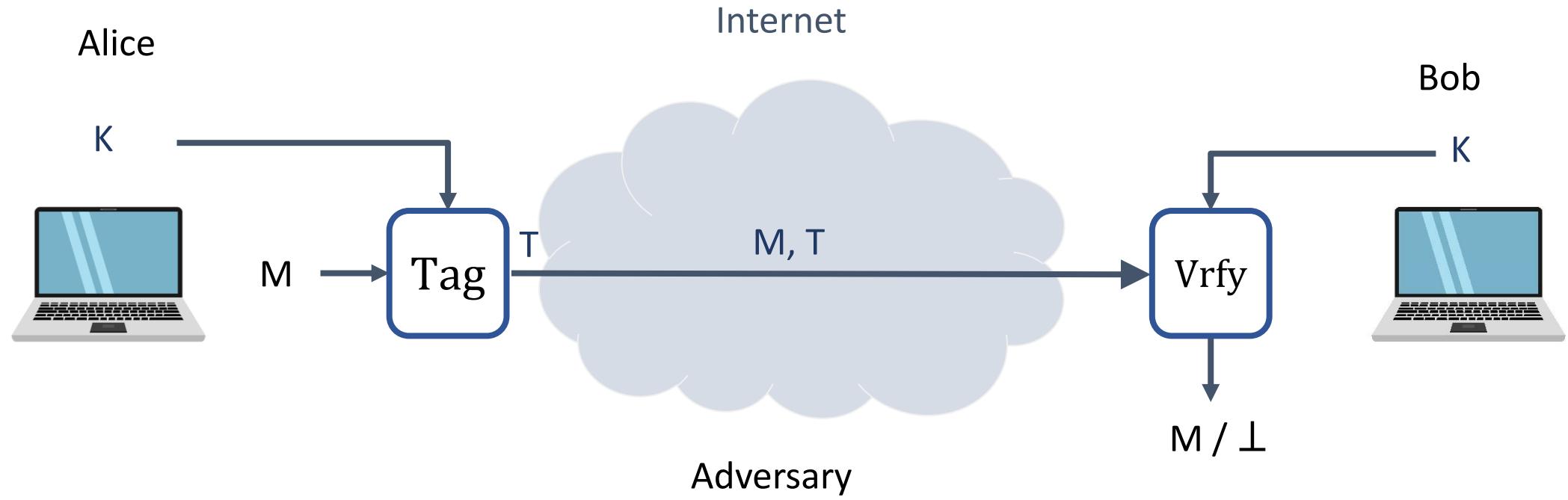
- Demonstration using SageMath
- <https://sagecell.sagemath.org/>

A short summary

- We can build IND-CPA secure ElGamal scheme based on DDH assumption
- Padding with randomness, we can transfer Textbook RSA to IND-CPA scheme

Digital Signature

Achieving integrity: MACs

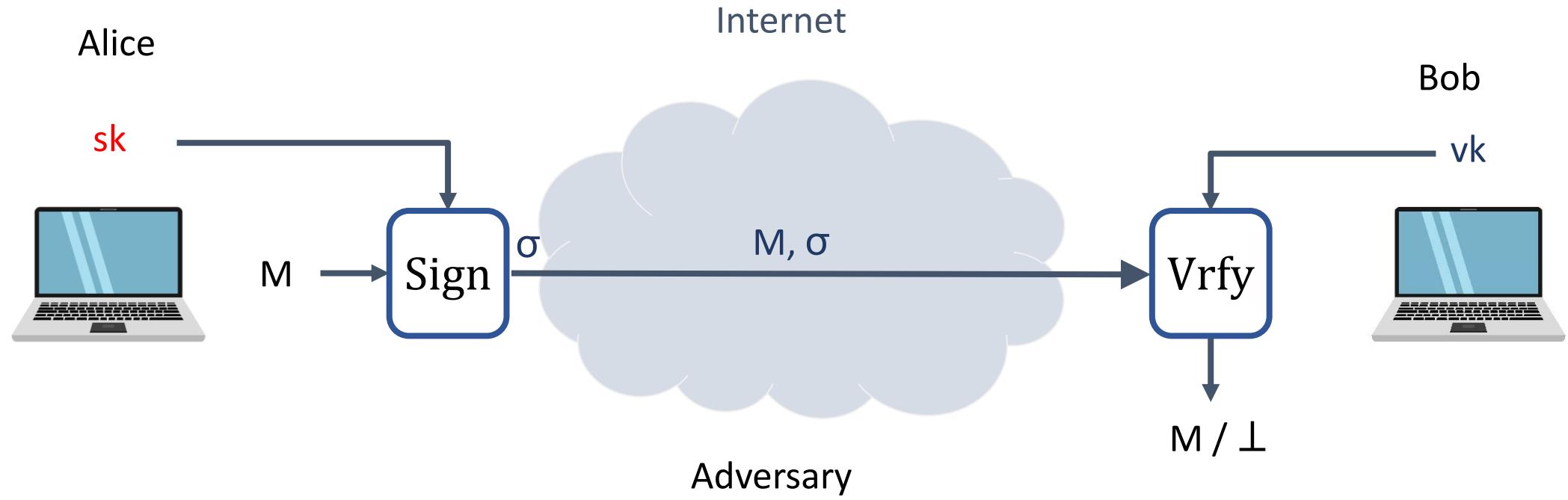


Tag : tagging algorithm (public)

K : tagging / verification key (secret)

Vrfy: verification algorithm (public)

Achieving integrity: digital signatures



Sign : tagging algorithm (public)

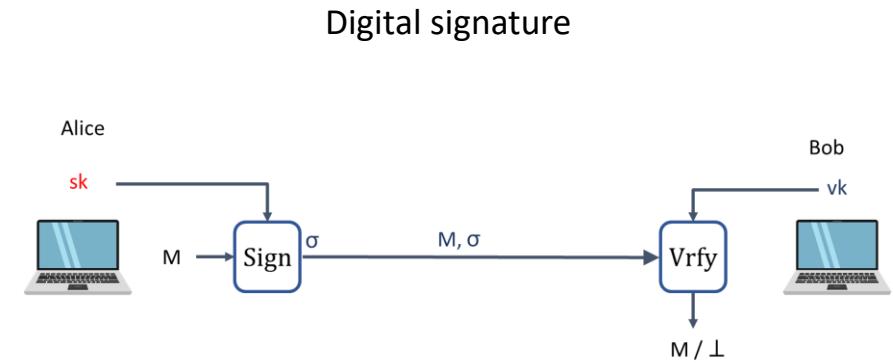
Vrfy : verification algorithm (public)

sk : signing key (secret)

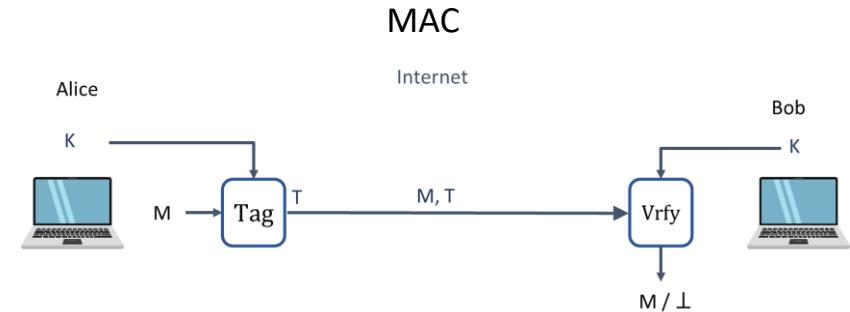
vk : verification key (public)

Digital signatures vs. MACs

- Digital signatures can be verified by *anyone*



- MACs can only be verified by party sharing the same key



- **Non-repudiation:** Alice cannot deny having created σ
 - But she can deny having created T (since Bob could have done it)

Digital signatures – syntax

A **digital signature** scheme is a tuple of algorithms $\Sigma = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$

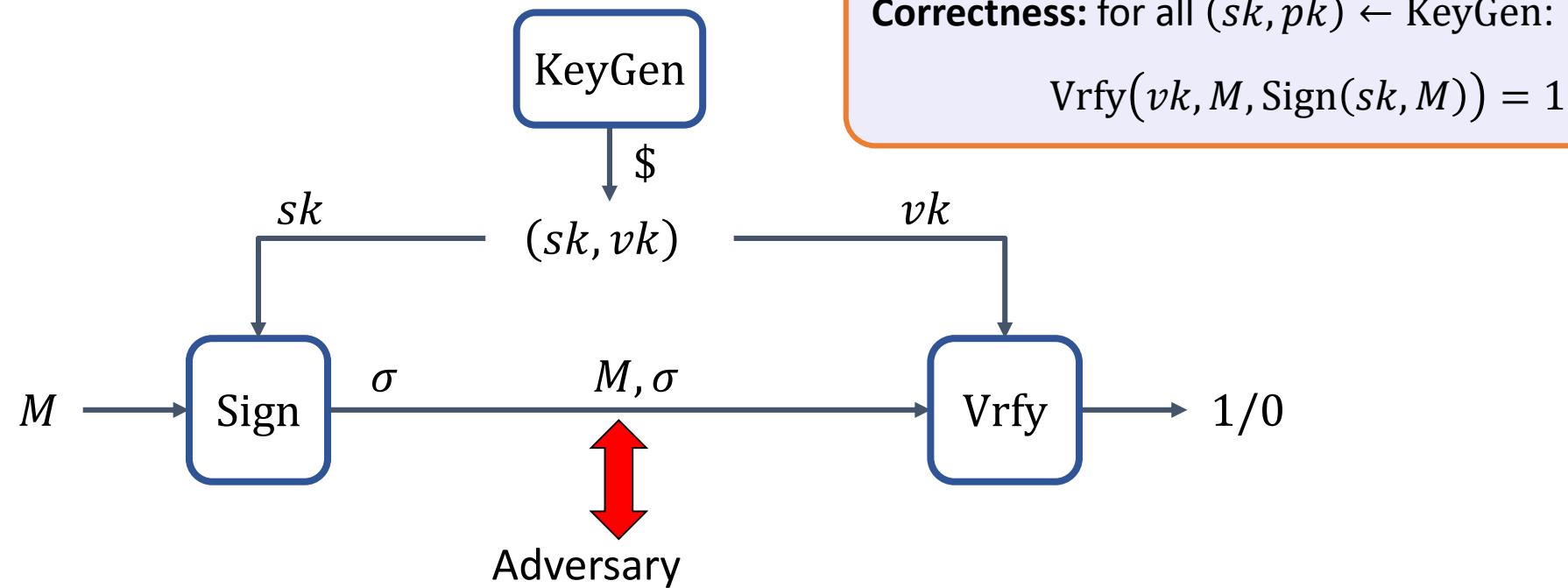
$$\text{KeyGen} : () \rightarrow \mathcal{SK} \times \mathcal{VK}$$

$$\text{Sign} : \mathcal{SK} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$$

$$\text{Vrfy} : \mathcal{VK} \times \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$$

$$\text{Sign}(sk, M) = \text{Sign}_{sk}(M) = \sigma$$

$$\text{Vrfy}(vk, M, \sigma) = \text{Vrfy}_{vk}(M, \sigma) = 1/0$$



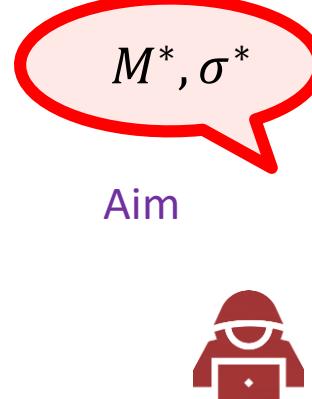
Digital signatures – security: UF-CMA

$\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A)$

```
1.  $(sk, vk) \xleftarrow{\$} \Sigma.\text{KeyGen}$ 
2.  $S \leftarrow []$ 
3.  $(M^*, \sigma^*) \leftarrow A^{\text{SIGN}_{sk}(\cdot)}(vk)$ 
4. if  $\Sigma.\text{Vrfy}(vk, M^*, \sigma^*) = 1$  and  $M \notin S$  then
   return 1
5. else
   return 0
```

$\text{SIGN}_{sk}(M)$

```
1.  $\sigma \leftarrow \Sigma.\text{Sign}(sk, M)$ 
2.  $S.\text{add}(M)$ 
return  $\sigma$ 
```



If σ^* is a valid signature for M^* (not asked before) then the adversary has **forged** a signature

Definition: The **UF-CMA-advantage** of an adversary A is

$$\text{Adv}_{\Sigma}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) = \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Sigma}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) \Rightarrow 1]$$

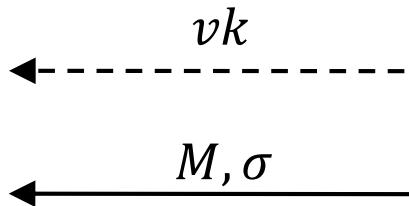
Textbook RSA signatures

$$\text{RSA.Sign: } \overbrace{\mathbf{Z}^+ \times \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*}^{\mathcal{SK}} \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n^*$$

$$\text{RSA.Vrfy: } \overbrace{\mathbf{Z}^+ \times \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*}^{\mathcal{PK}} \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \{1,0\}$$

Vrfy($vk = (n, e), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*, \sigma$)

1. if $\sigma^e = M \bmod n$ then
2. return 1
3. else
4. return 0



KeyGen

1. $p, q \xleftarrow{\$}$ two random prime numbers
2. $n \leftarrow p \cdot q$
3. $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
4. choose e such that $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
5. $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
6. $sk \leftarrow (n, d) \quad vk \leftarrow (n, e)$
7. return (sk, vk)

Sign($sk = (n, d), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)

1. $\sigma \leftarrow M^d \bmod n$
2. return σ

$$d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n) \Leftrightarrow ed = 1 \bmod \phi(n)$$

$$\sigma^e = M^{de} = M^{ed \bmod \phi(n)} = M^1 = M \bmod n$$

Insecurity of Textbook RSA signature

Given $\sigma_1 = M_1^d, \sigma_2 = M_2^d$

$\sigma_1\sigma_2 = (M_1M_2)^d \text{ mod } n$ is a signature of $M_1M_2 \text{ mod } n$

Many other attacks exist

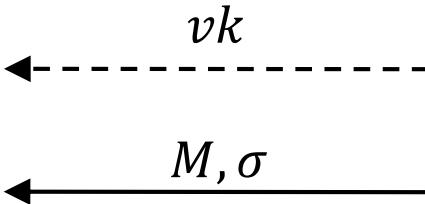
Hash-then sign paradigm

RSA. Sign: $\overbrace{\mathbf{Z}^+ \times \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*}^{\mathcal{SK}} \times \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n^*$

RSA. Vrfy: $\overbrace{\mathbf{Z}^+ \times \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*}^{\mathcal{PK}} \times \{0,1\}^* \times \mathbf{Z}_n^* \rightarrow \{1,0\}$

Vrfy($vk = (n, e), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*, \sigma$)

1. if $\sigma^e = H(M) \bmod n$ then
2. return 1
3. else
4. return 0



$$H : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_n^*$$

KeyGen

1. $\color{red}{p}, \color{green}{q} \xleftarrow{\$}$ two random prime numbers
2. $n \leftarrow \color{red}{p} \cdot \color{green}{q}$
3. $\phi(\color{blue}{n}) = (\color{red}{p} - 1)(\color{green}{q} - 1)$
4. choose e such that $\gcd(\color{blue}{e}, \phi(\color{blue}{n})) = 1$
5. $\color{violet}{d} \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \phi(\color{blue}{n})$
6. $sk \leftarrow (n, \color{violet}{d}) \quad vk \leftarrow (n, e)$
7. return (sk, vk)

Sign($sk = (n, d), M \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$)

1. $\sigma \leftarrow H(M)^d \bmod n$
2. return σ

Theorem: For any UF-CMA adversary A against hashed RSA making q $\text{SIGN}_{sk}(\cdot)$ queries, there is an algorithm B solving the RSA-problem:

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\text{RSA}, H}^{\text{uf-cma}}(A) \leq q \cdot \mathbf{Adv}_{n,e}^{\text{RSA}}(B)$$

where H is assumed perfect*

* H is assumed to be random oracle, which is out of the scope of this course. Refer to [KL] Section 5

Discrete-log-based signatures: (EC)DSA

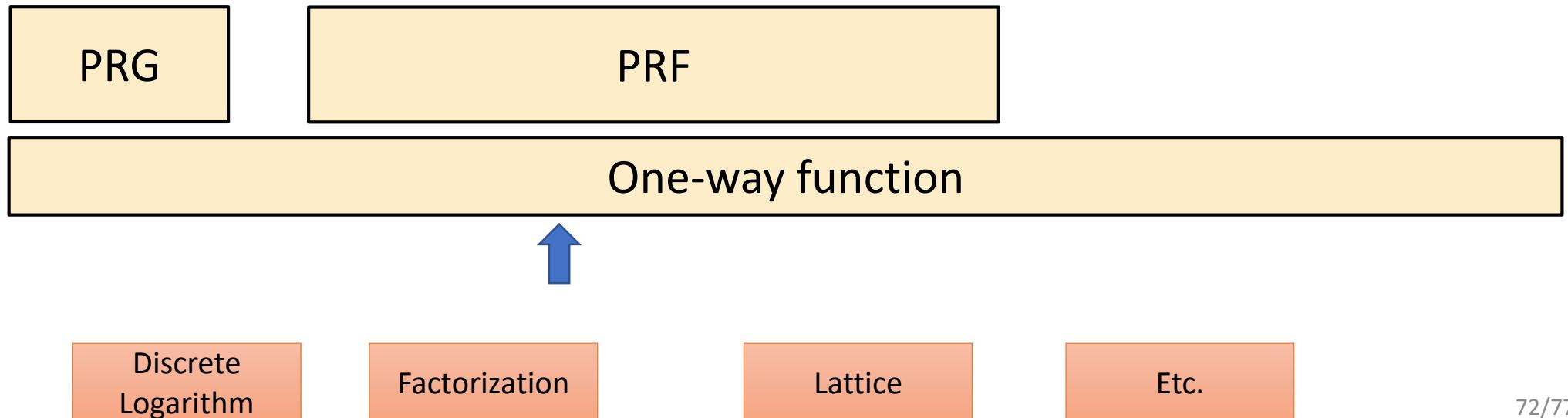
- Schnorr
 - Elegant design
 - Has formal security proof (based on DLOG problem and H assumed perfect)
 - Patented (expired in February 2008)
- (EC)DSA
 - Non-patented alternative
 - Derived from ElGamal-based signature scheme
 - More complicated design than Schnorr
 - No security proof
 - Standardized by NIST
 - Very widely used

A short summary

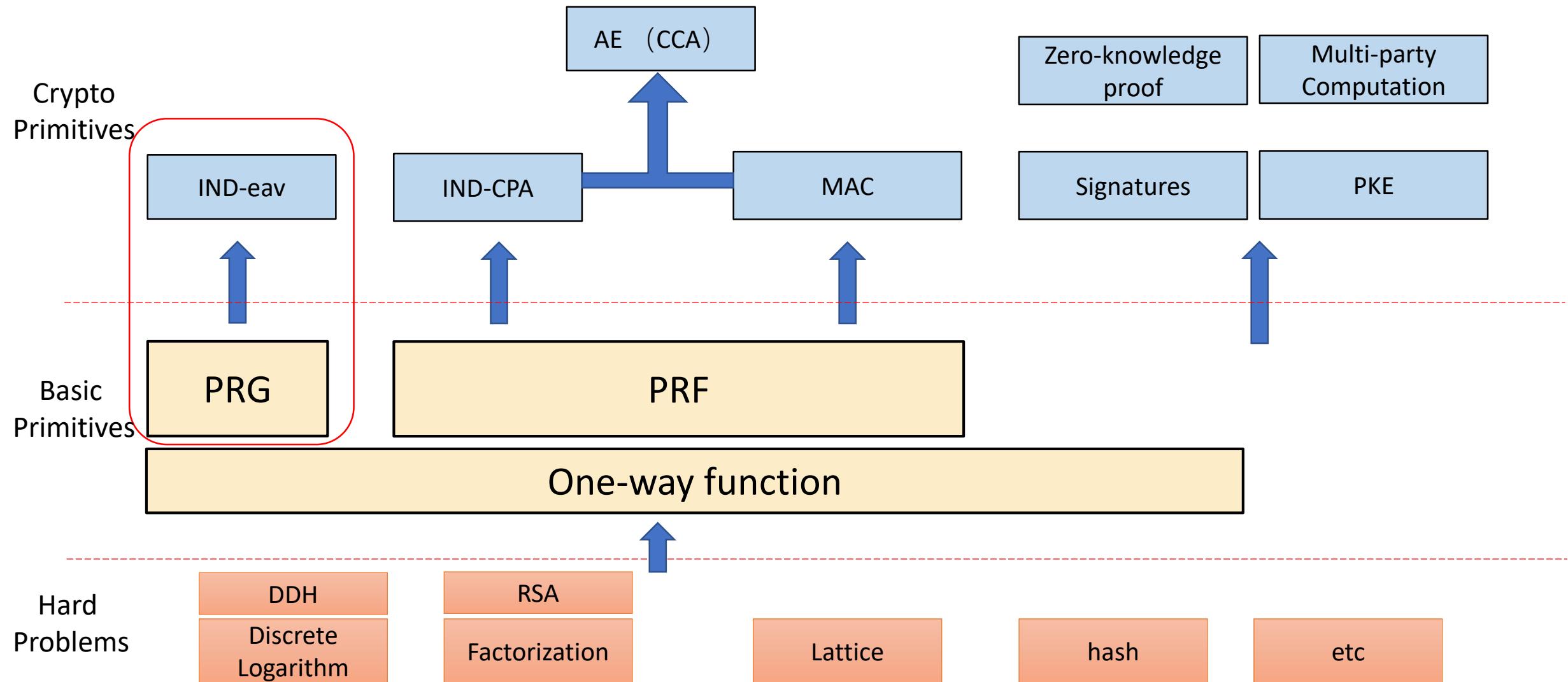
- Hash-then sign paradigm of RSA gives a secure signature
- There are Discrete-log-based signatures, ECDSA, and Schnorr

One more thing

- We leave the construction of Pseudorandom generator (PRG) and Pseudorandom function (PRF) in lecture 2
- One-way function f : given $y = f(x)$ for random x , it is hard to find x' such that $y = f(x')$



Big picture of Cryptography



Primitive	Functionality + syntax	Hardness assumption	Security	Examples
Diffie-Hellman	Derive shared value (key) in a cyclic group $A^b = g^{ab} = B^a$	Discrete logarithm (DLOG) Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH)		$(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot) - \text{DH}$ $(E(\mathbb{F}_p), +) - \text{DH}$
RSA function	One-way trapdoor function/permuation	Factoring problem RSA-problem		Textbook RSA
Public-key encryption	Encrypt variable-length input $\text{Enc} : \mathcal{PK} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$	Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) Factoring problem RSA-problem	IND-CPA IND-CCA	EIGamal Padded RSA
Digital signatures	$\text{Sign} : \mathcal{SK} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{S}$ $\text{Vrfy} : \mathcal{VK} \times \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \{1,0\}$	RSA-problem Discrete logarithm (DLOG)	UF-CMA	Hashed-RSA ECDSA Schnorr

Assignment 1 (4 weeks)

- Write the ElGamal Enc algorithm in Sage
 - Provide “known answer-test” (KAT) values (i.e., example of pk, sk, m and c)
- Write the Textbook RSA signature in Sage
 - And show the attack that if $\sigma_1 = M_1^d, \sigma_2 = M_2^d$ $\sigma_1\sigma_2$ is the signature of M_1M_2
 - Provide “known answer-test” (KAT) values
- Instructors will be given later..

Thank you