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# Lecture 4: Network Security Principles

-COMP 6712 Advanced Security and Privacy

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2024/2/5

# Network Security Principles

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- Recall RSA and Digital Signature
- Authenticated Key Exchange
- Public Key Infrastructure(PKI)
- and Certification Authorities

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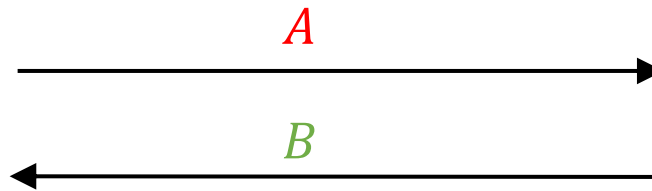
# Public key encryption

# Diffie-Hellman

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$$G = \langle g \rangle$$

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

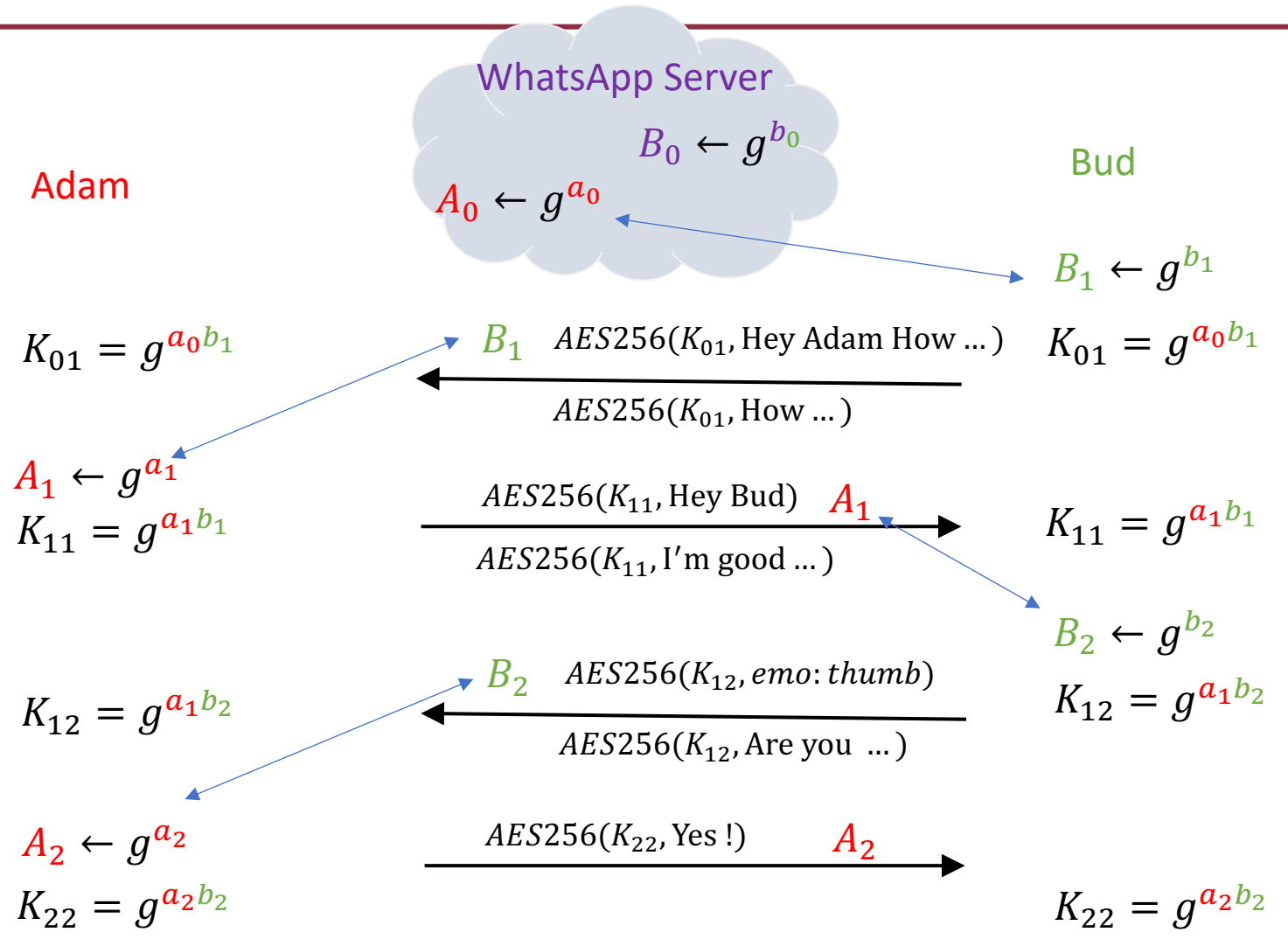


$$b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{1, \dots, |G|\}$$
$$B \leftarrow g^b$$

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

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

# Ratchet Diffie-Hellman in WhatsApp and Signal



# ElGamal

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

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

$G = \langle g \rangle$

$B$

$A, C$

## 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( $sk, C$ )

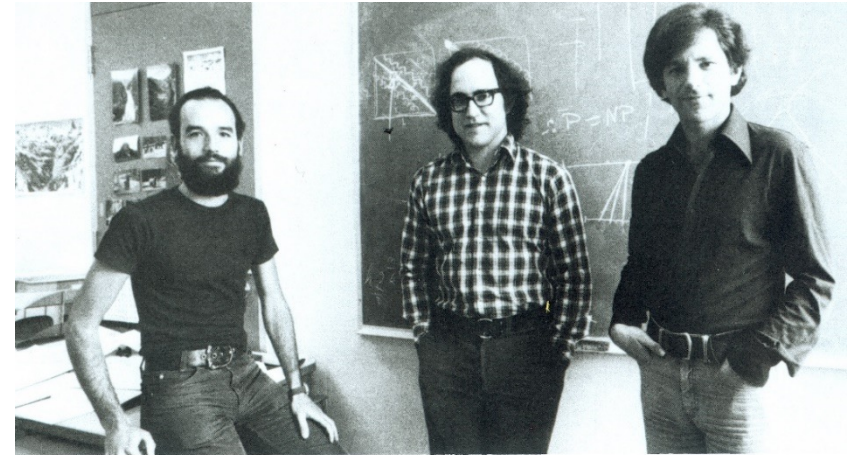
1.  $Z \leftarrow A^b = g^{ab}$
2.  $M \leftarrow C/Z$
3. **return**  $M$

# RSA in 1977

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- The RSA encryption scheme

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



Adi Shamir

Ron Rivest

Leonard Adleman

# Euler's Theorem

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**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  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ :

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

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

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

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



# Structure for RSA

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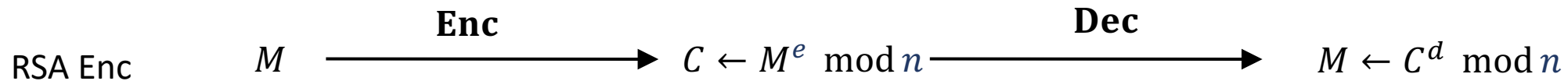
$$n \leftarrow p \cdot q$$

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

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

$(\mathbf{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$  is a group of order  $\phi(n)$ !

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



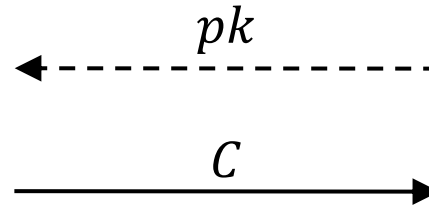
# Textbook RSA

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

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

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

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



## KeyGen

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

## Dec

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

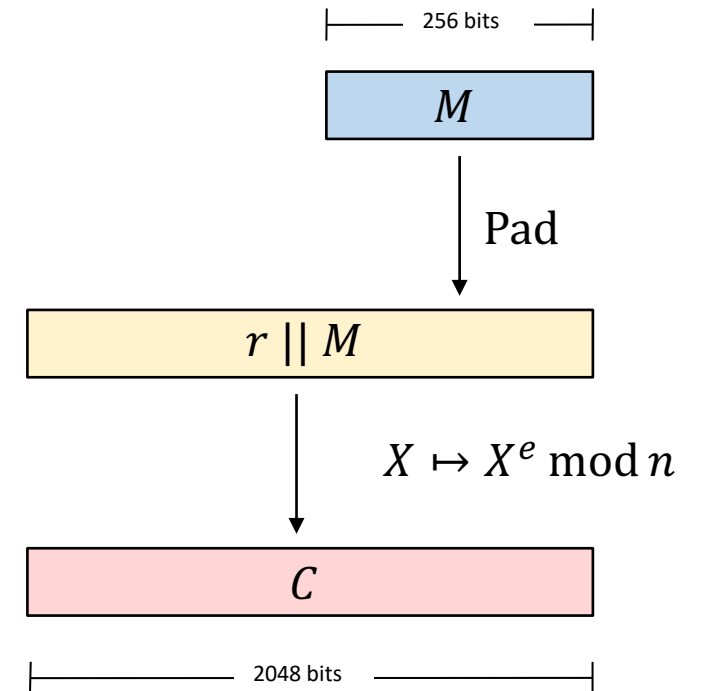
1.  $M \leftarrow C^d \bmod n$
2. **return**  $M$

Common choices of  $e$ : 3, 17, 65 537  
 $11_2 \quad 10001_2 \quad 1\ 0000\ 0000\ 0000\ 0001_2$

# RSA in practice

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- Textbook RSA is deterministic  $\implies$  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)
- Do not use Textbook RSA
- RSA encryption not used much in practice anymore



# A short summary

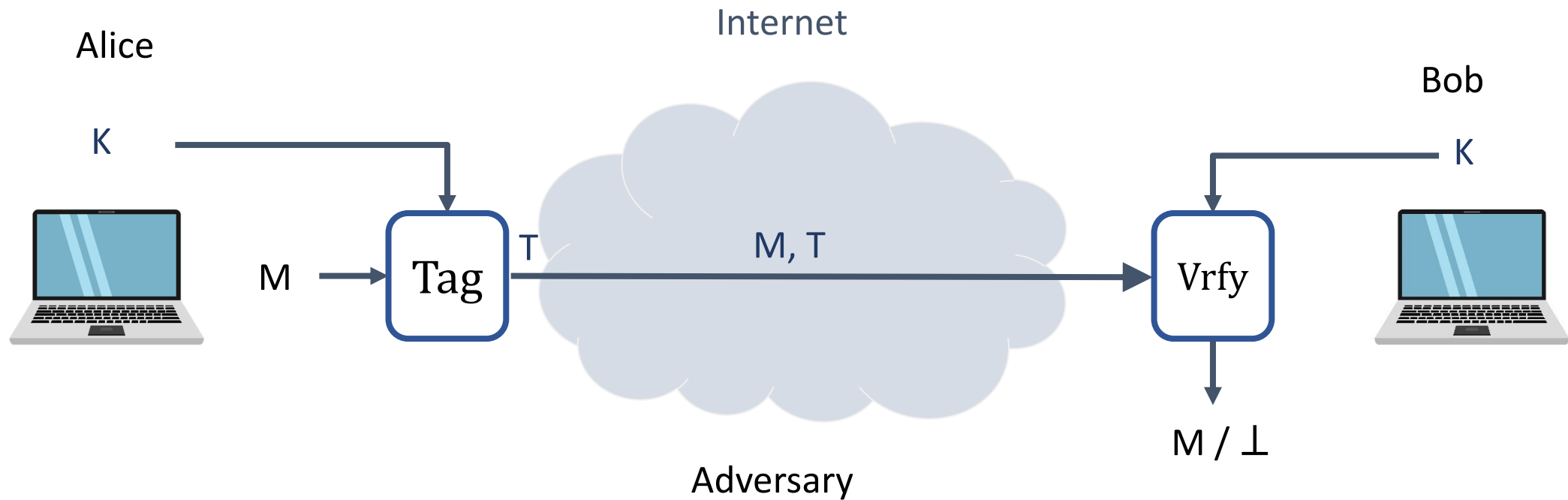
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- We can build IND-CPA secure ElGamal scheme based on DDH assumption
- Padding with randomness, we can transfer Textbook RSA to IND-CPA scheme

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# Digital Signature

# Achieving integrity: MACs

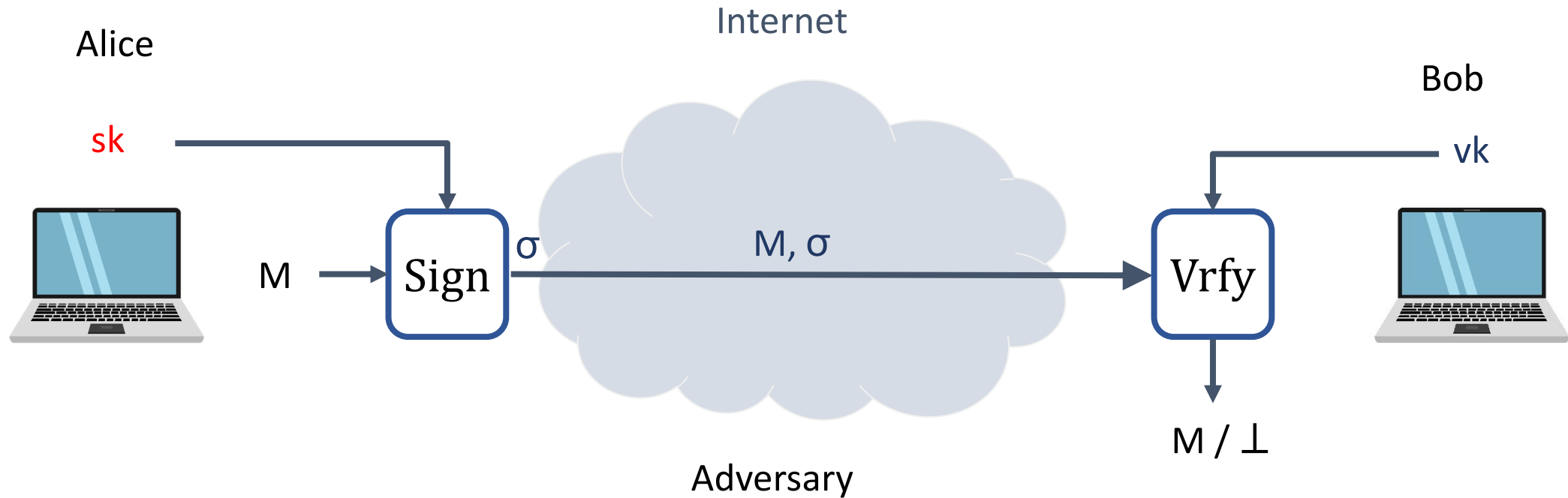


**Tag** : tagging algorithm (public)

**K** : tagging / verification key (secret)

**Vrfy**: verification algorithm (public)

# Achieving integrity: digital signatures



**Sign** : tagging algorithm (public)

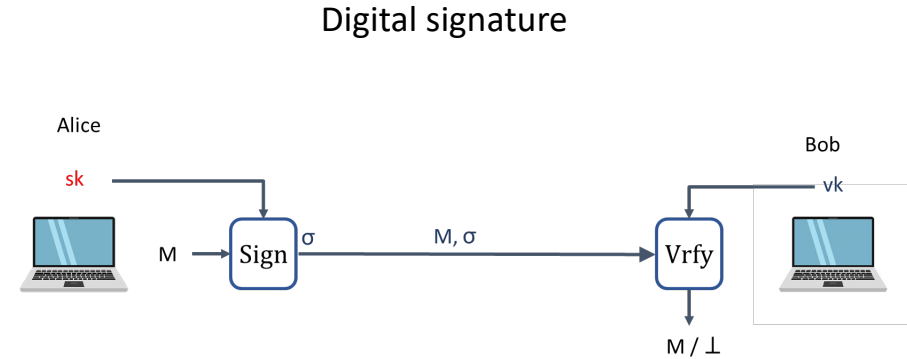
$sk$  : signing key (secret)

**Vrfy** : verification algorithm (public)

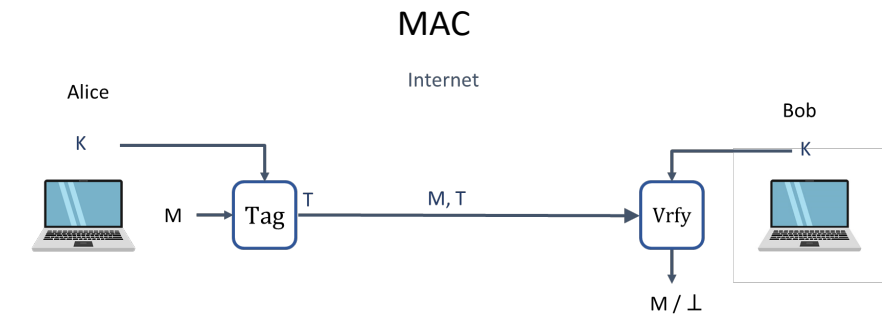
$vk$  : verification key (public)

# 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  $\sigma$ 
  - 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  $\Sigma = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Vrfy})$

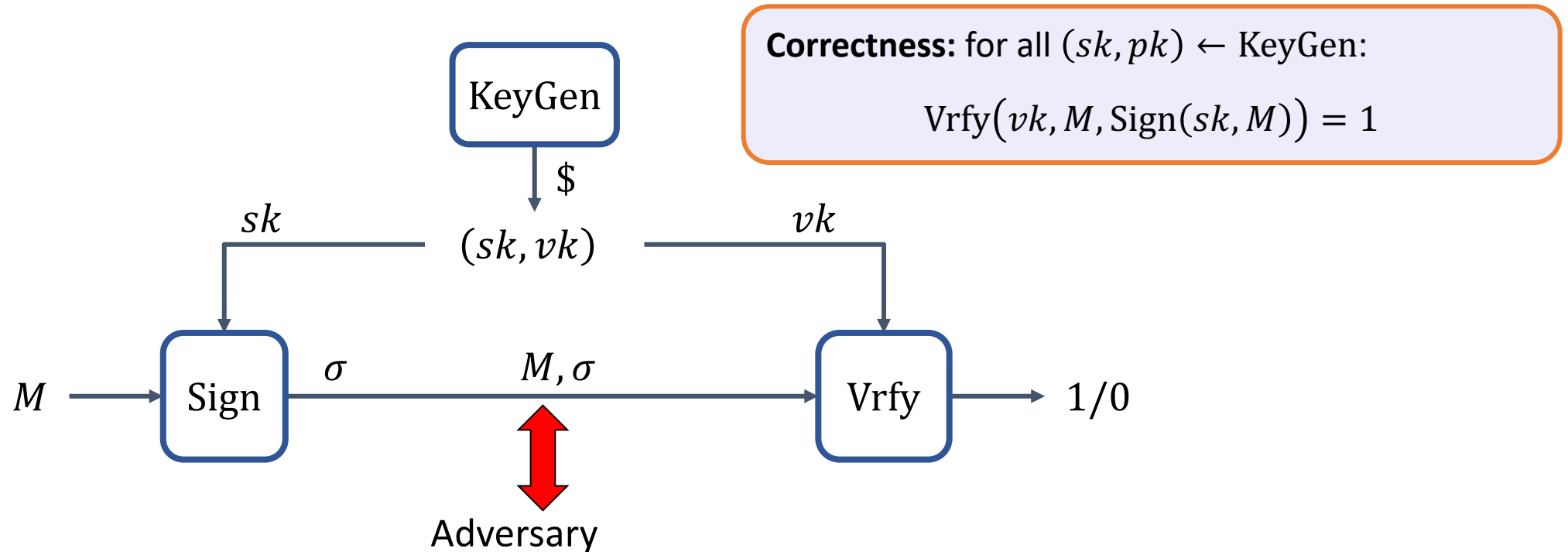
$$\text{KeyGen} : () \rightarrow \mathcal{SK} \times \mathcal{VK}$$

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

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

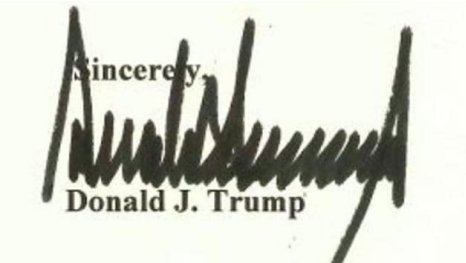
$$\text{Sign}(sk, M) = \text{Sign}_{sk}(M) = \sigma$$

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



# Signature: unforgeability

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unforgeable



unforgeable

$\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots$



$\sigma^*$

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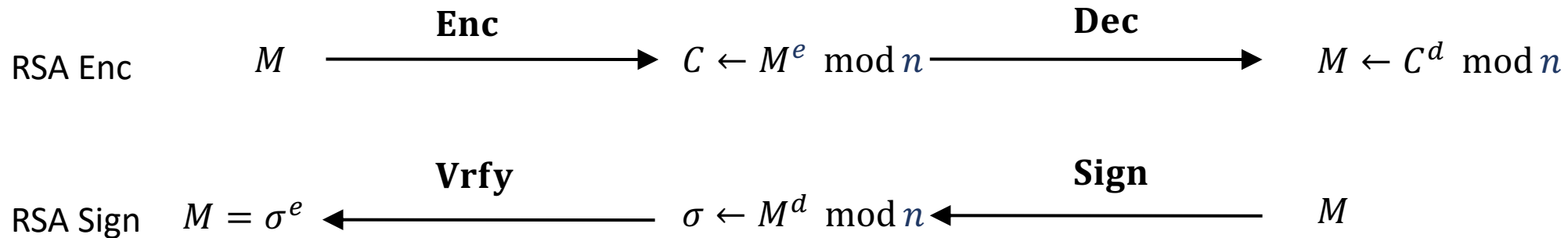
$$n \leftarrow p \cdot q$$

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

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

$(\mathbf{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$  is a group of order  $\phi(n)$ !

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



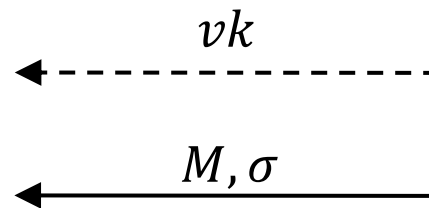
# Textbook RSA signatures

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

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

**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.  $p, q \overset{\$}{\leftarrow}$  two random prime numbers
2.  $n \leftarrow p \cdot q$
3.  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
4. **choose**  $e$  such that  $\text{gcd}(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
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**  $\sigma$

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

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

# Insecurity of Textbook RSA signature

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

$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = (M_1 M_2)^d \pmod n$  is a signature of  $M_1 M_2 \pmod n$

Many other attacks exist

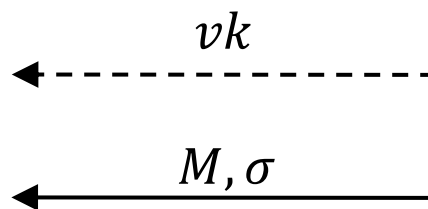
# RSA-FDH: Hash-then sign paradigm

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

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

**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.  $p, q \overset{\$}{\leftarrow}$  two random prime numbers
2.  $n \leftarrow p \cdot q$
3.  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
4. **choose**  $e$  such that  $\text{gcd}(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
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.  $\sigma \leftarrow H(M)^d \bmod n$
2. **return**  $\sigma$

# RSA-FDH: Hash-then sign paradigm

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**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 12.4 for the formal proof

# From the view of attack

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Given  $\sigma_1 = H(M_1)^d, \sigma_2 = H(M_2)^d$

$\sigma_1 \sigma_2 = (H(M_1)H(M_2))^d \bmod n$  is a signature of **some  $m$ ??**

Find  $m$  such that  $H(m) = H(M_1)H(M_2)!!!!$  **One-wayness of H**



# Digital signature using in practice

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- RSA signature

- RSAwithSHA-256,382,512

(PKCS #1 V2.1, RFC 6594)

- ECDSA signature

- ECDSA256,384,512

(NIST FIPS 186-4)

- EdDSA

(RFC 6979)

- Schnorr signature

# A short summary

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

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)		$(\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot)$ –DH $(E(\mathbb{F}_p), +)$ –DH
RSA function	One-way trapdoor function/permutation	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 (Deadline 10 March)

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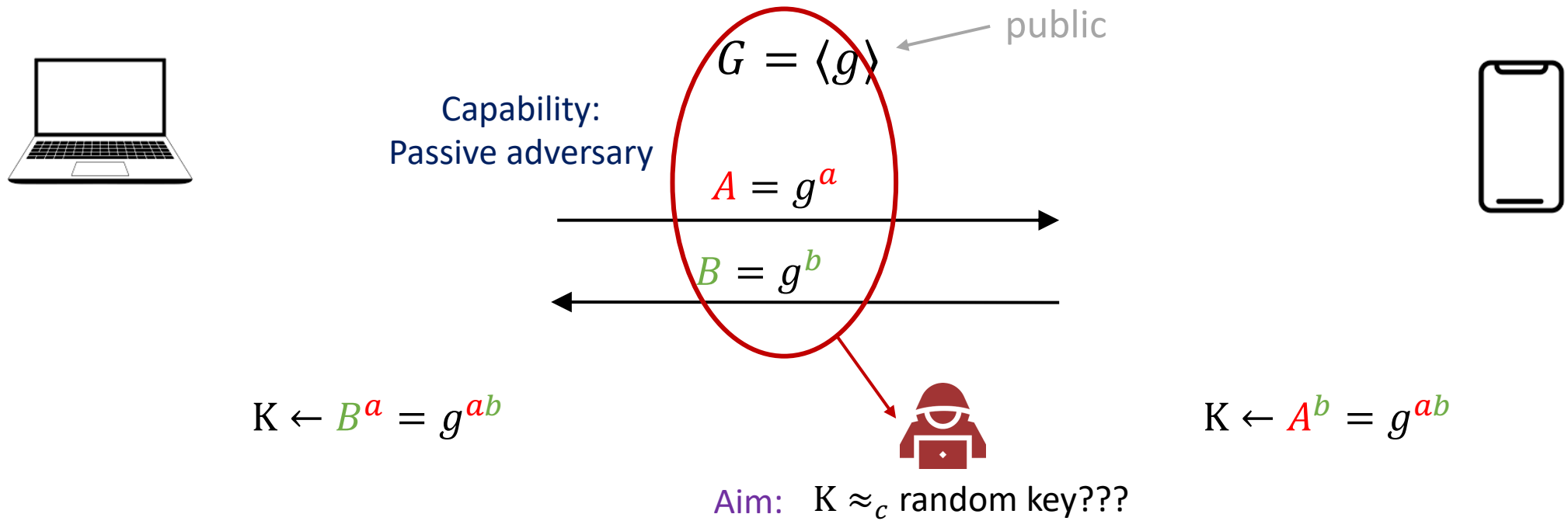
- Implement the ElGamal Enc algorithm in Sage
  - submit the code
  - Provide “known answer-test” (KAT) values (i.e., example of pk, sk, m and c)
- Implement the Textbook RSA signature in Sage
  - submit the code
  - And show the attack that if  $\sigma_1 = M_1^d, \sigma_2 = M_2^d$ , then  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2$  is the Textbook RSA signature of  $M_1 M_2$
  - Provide “known answer-test” (KAT) values (i.e., example of vk=(n, e), sk=d, m and  $\sigma$ )
- Write a report about the algorithms and implementation
- Assignment 1 will be available on the blackboard

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# Network security

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- authenticated key exchange
  - public key infrastructure (PKI)
  - and certification authorities

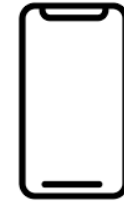
# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



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

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

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange



$$G = \langle g \rangle \leftarrow \text{public}$$

Capability:  
Active adversary?

$$A = g^a$$



$$B = g^b$$



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

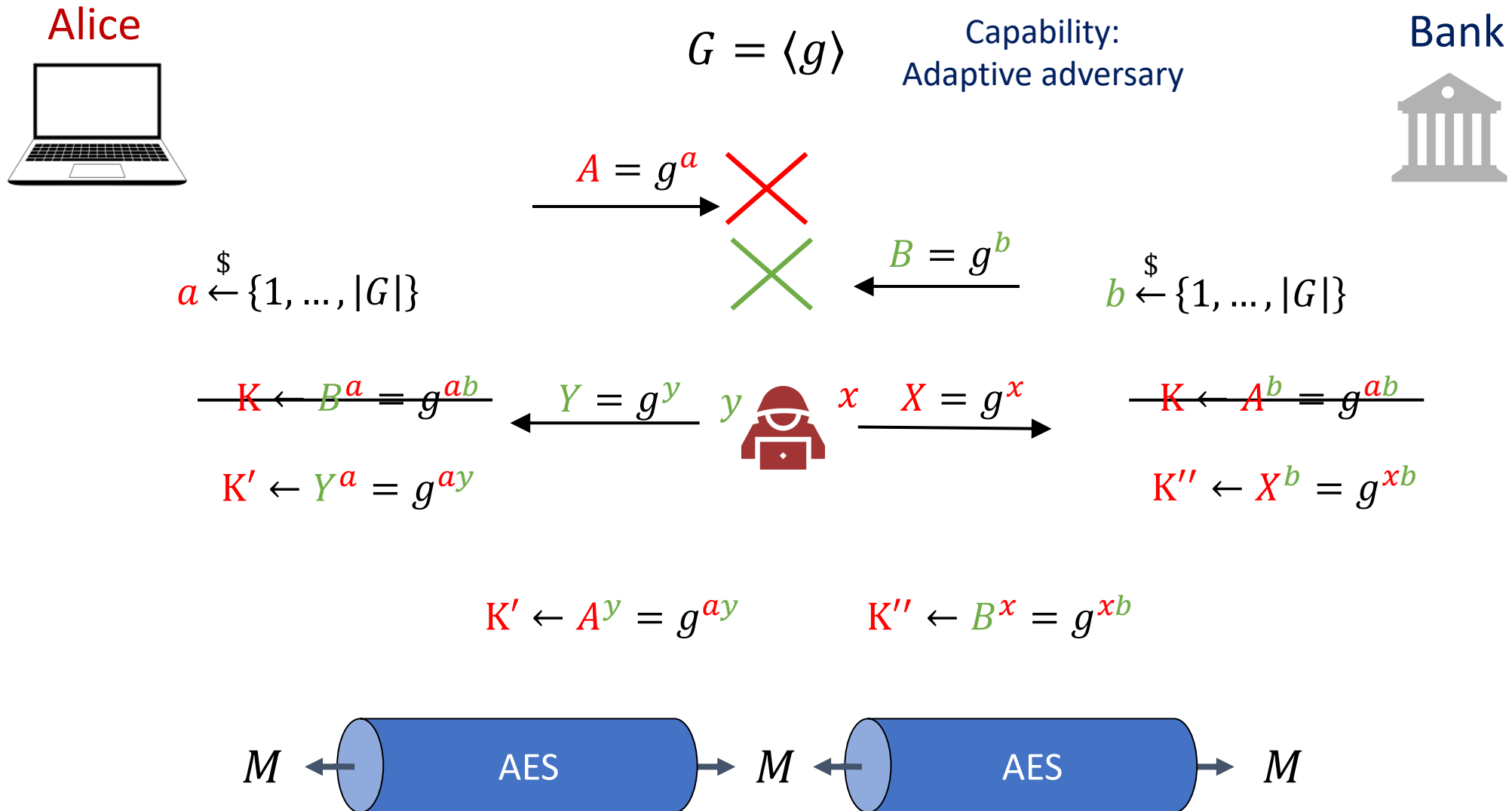


$$K \leftarrow A^b = g^{ab}$$

Aim:  $K \approx_c$  random key???



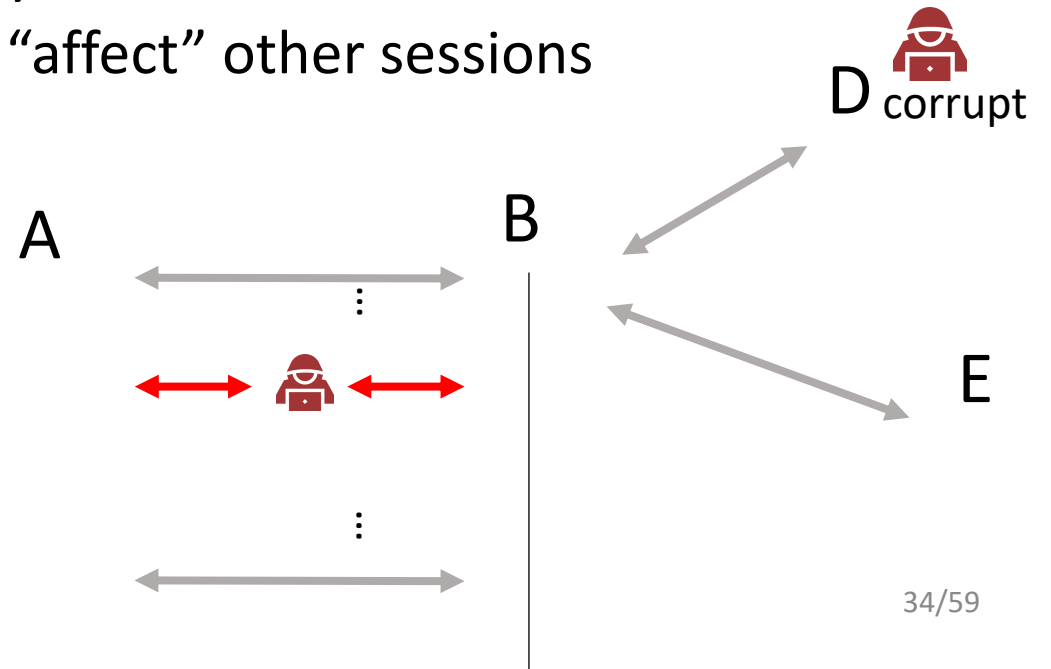
# Diffie-Hellman: man-in-the-middle attack



# Active Adversary

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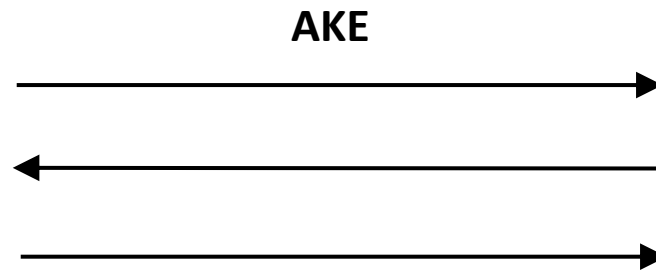
- Adversary has complete control of the network:
  - Can modify, inject and delete packets
  - Like the man-in-the-middle attack
- Moreover, some internet users are honest and others are corrupted
  - Corrupt users are controlled by the adversary
  - Key exchange with corrupt users should not “affect” other sessions



# Authenticated Key Exchange (AKE)

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- key exchange secure against **active** adversaries
- AKE protocol should **allow two users to establish a shared key**, and ensure that they are talking with whom they plan to talk with

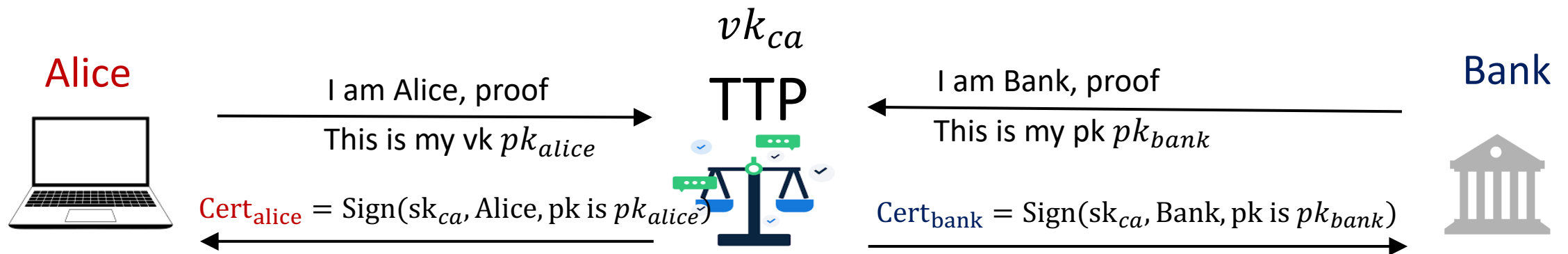


Capability:  
Active adversary?

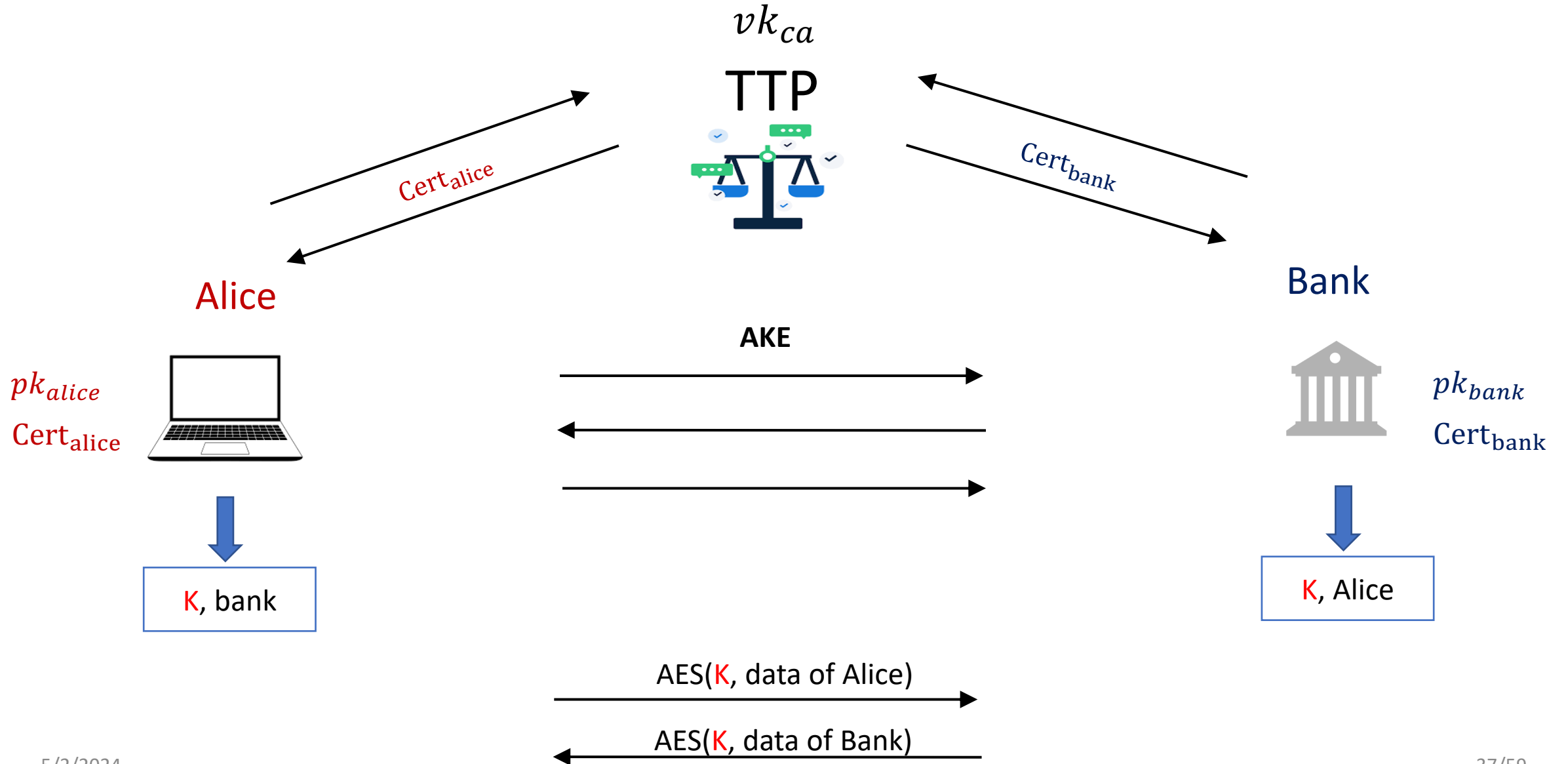
# Trusted Third Party

All AKE protocols require a TTP to certify user identities.

Registration process:



# AKE-syntax



# Basic AKE security (very informal)

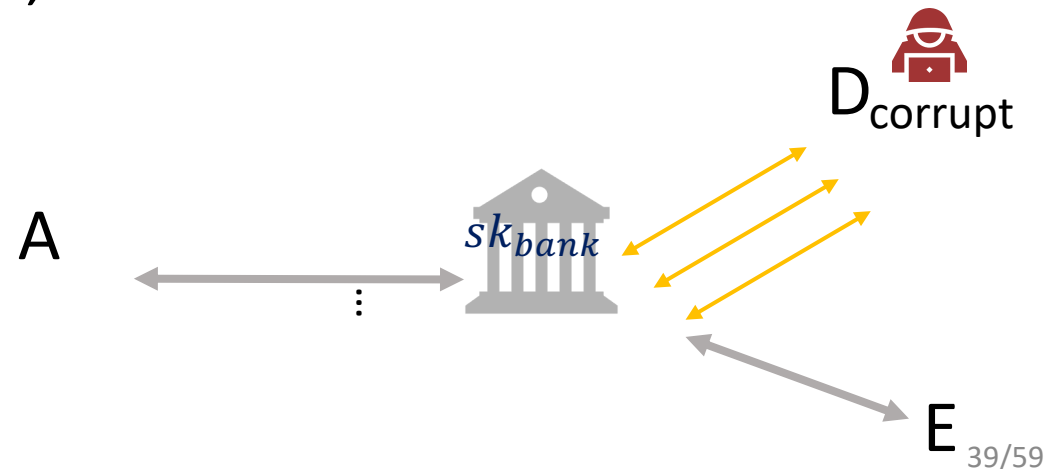
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- Suppose Alice successfully completes an AKE to obtain **(K, Bank)**
- If Bank is not corrupt then:
  - **Authenticity** for Alice: (similarly for Bank)
  - If Alice's key **K** is shared with anyone, it is only shared with Bank
  - **Secrecy** for Alice: (similarly for Bank)
  - To the adversary, Alice's key **K** is indistinguishable from random (aim)
  - **Consistency**: if Bank completes AKE then it obtains **(K, Alice)**

# Three levels (core) security of AKE:

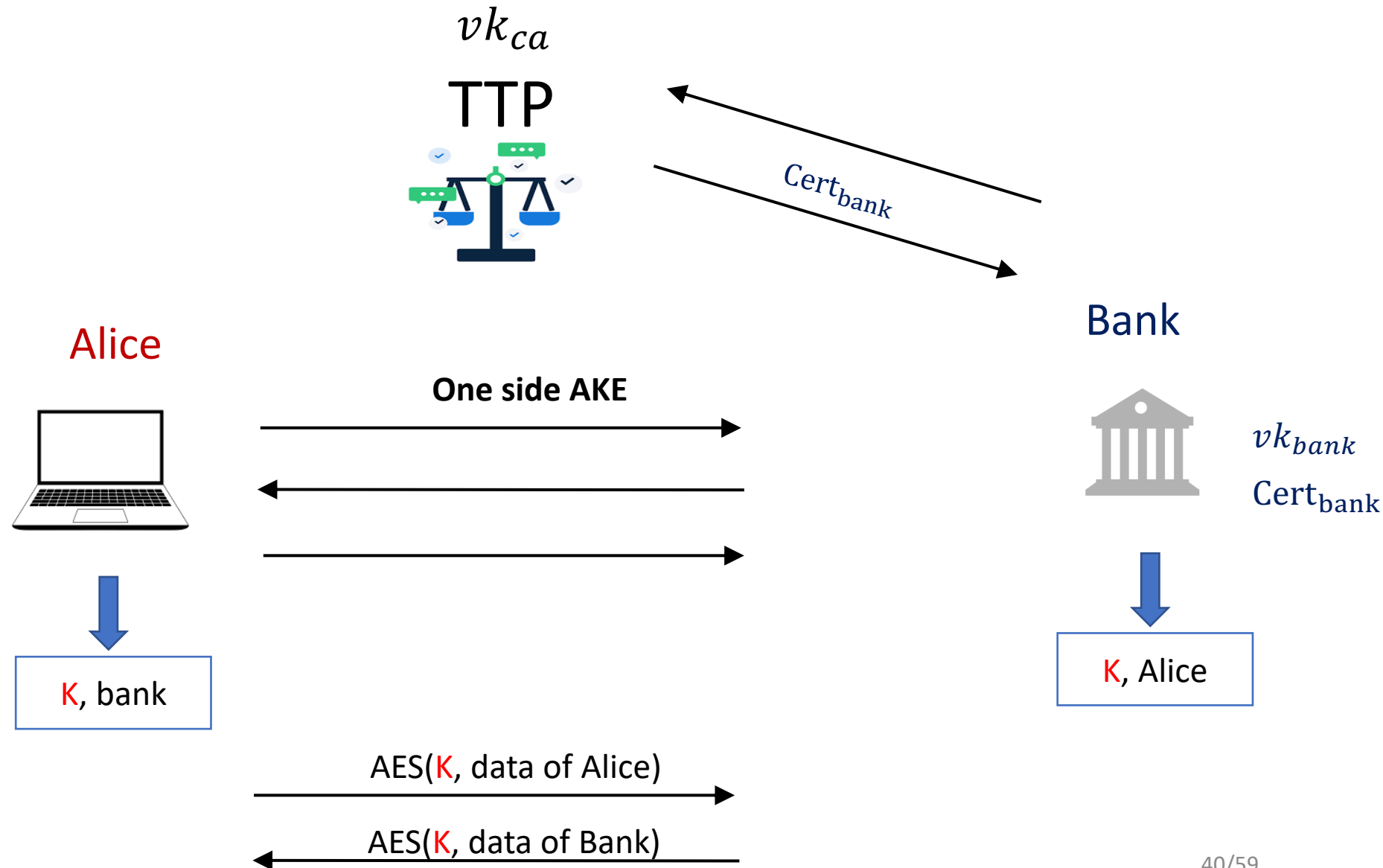
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- **Static security:** previous slide
- **Forward secrecy:** static security, and if the adversary learns  $sk_{bank}$  at time T then all sessions with Bank **before T remain secure**.
- **Hardware Security Module (HSM):** Forward secrecy, and if adversary queries an HSM holding  $sk_{bank}$  n times, then at most n sessions are compromised.



# One-sided AKE: syntax

- only one side has a certificate
- three security levels.





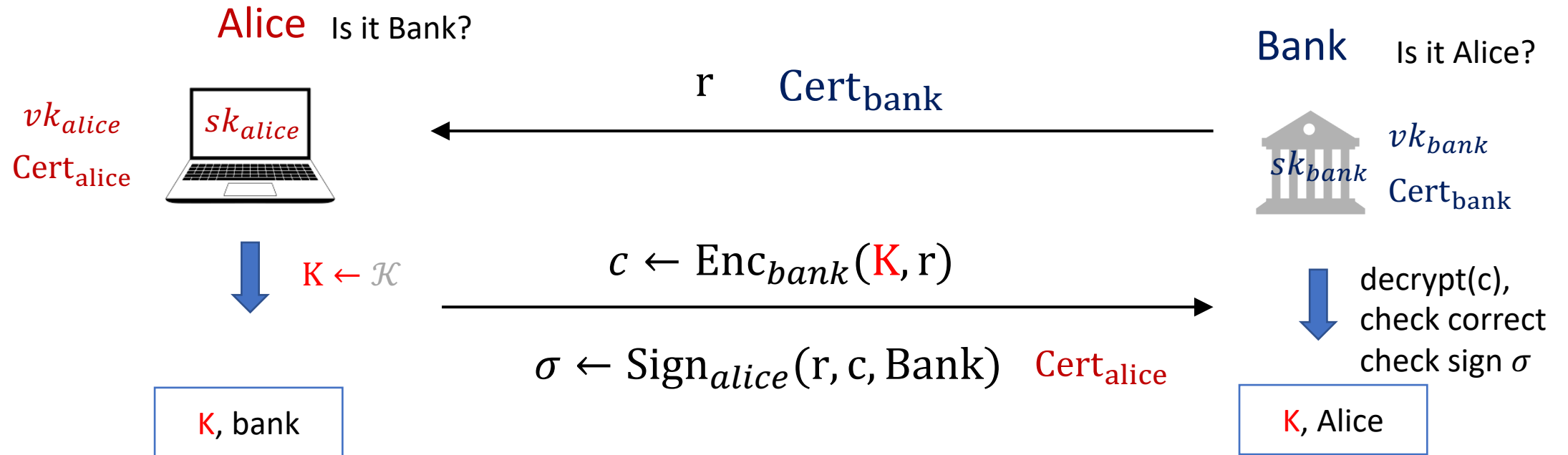
# Protocol #1 Building blocks

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- Bank has  $\text{Cert}_{\text{bank}}$  contains  $pk_{\text{bank}}$
- $\text{Enc}_{\text{bank}}$ : IND-CCA secure PKE using Bank's public key  
Bank keeps  $sk_{\text{bank}}$  as the secret encryption key
- $\text{Sign}_{\text{alice}} / \text{Sign}_{\text{bank}}$  : UF-CMA secure signature of Alice/Bank
- AES encryption scheme

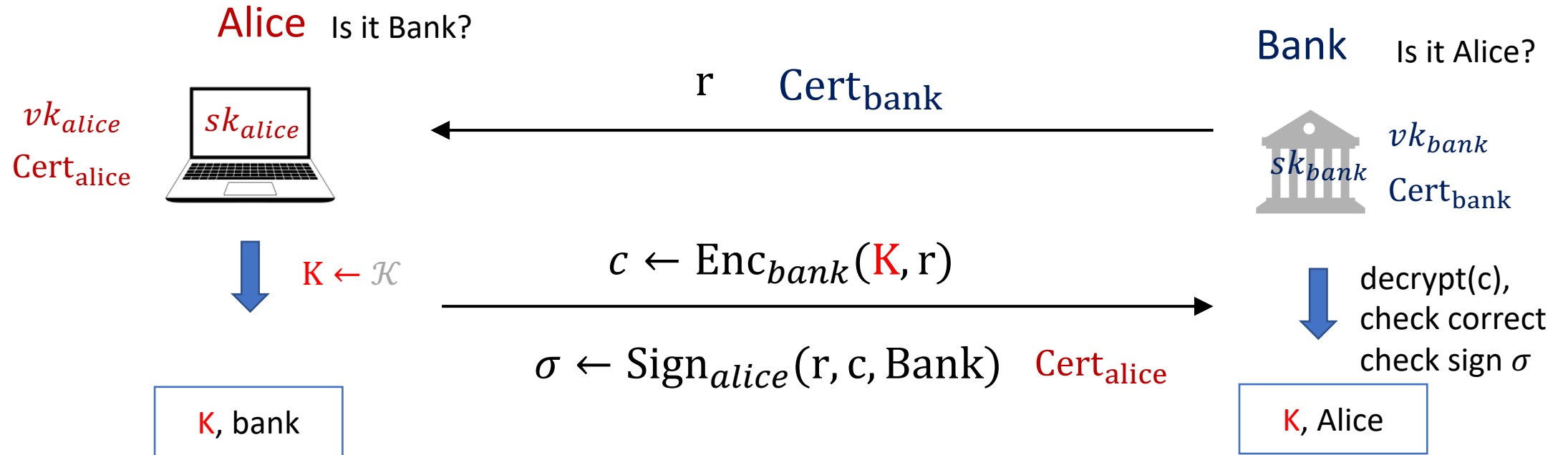
# Protocol #1

AKE1 of section 21.2 in [A Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography](#)



- Theorem: Protocol #1 is a statically secure AKE
- Informally: if Alice and Bank are not corrupt then we have  
(1) secrecy for Alice\Bank and (2) authenticity for Alice\Bank

# Protocol #1 problem: no forward secrecy



Suppose a year later adversary obtains  $sk_{bank}$

$\Rightarrow$  can decrypt all recorded traffic

Protocol #1 is used in TLS 1.2 not TLS 1.3

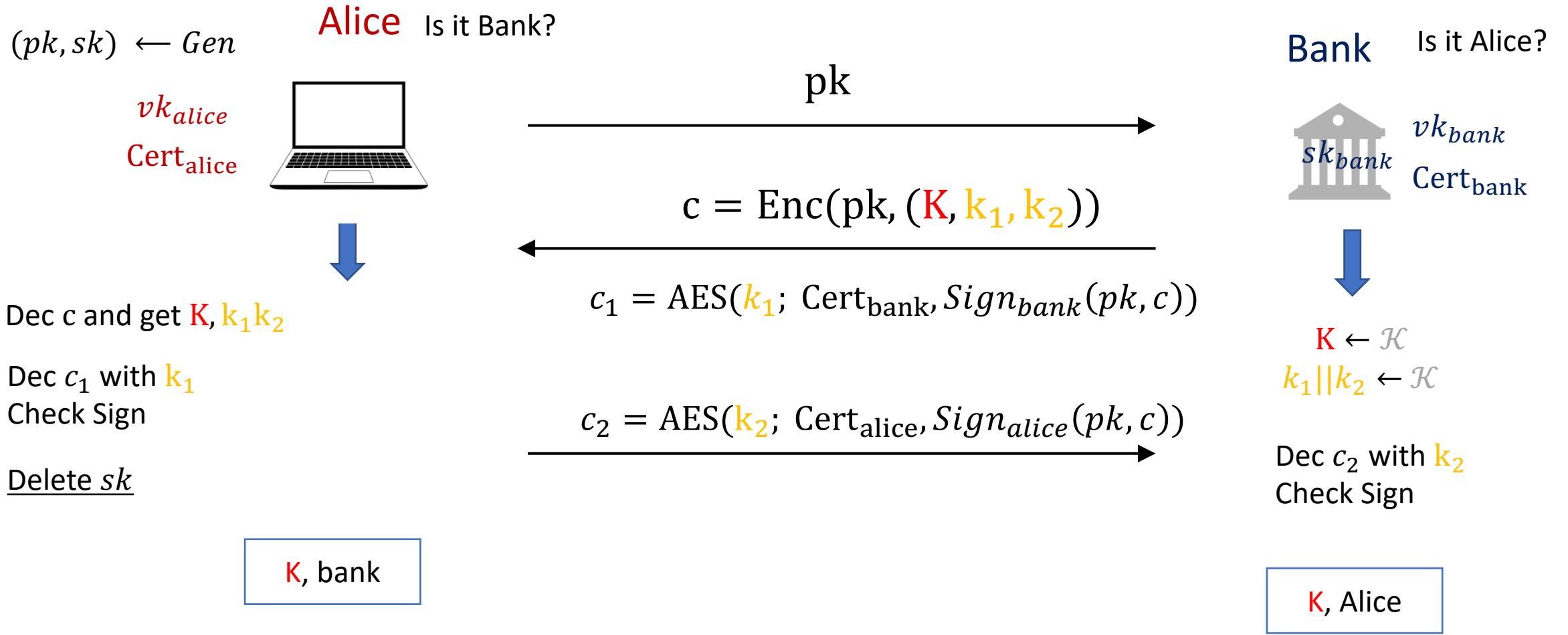
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# Protocol #2: HSM Security

Forward secrecy, and  
n queries to HSM should compromise at most n sessions

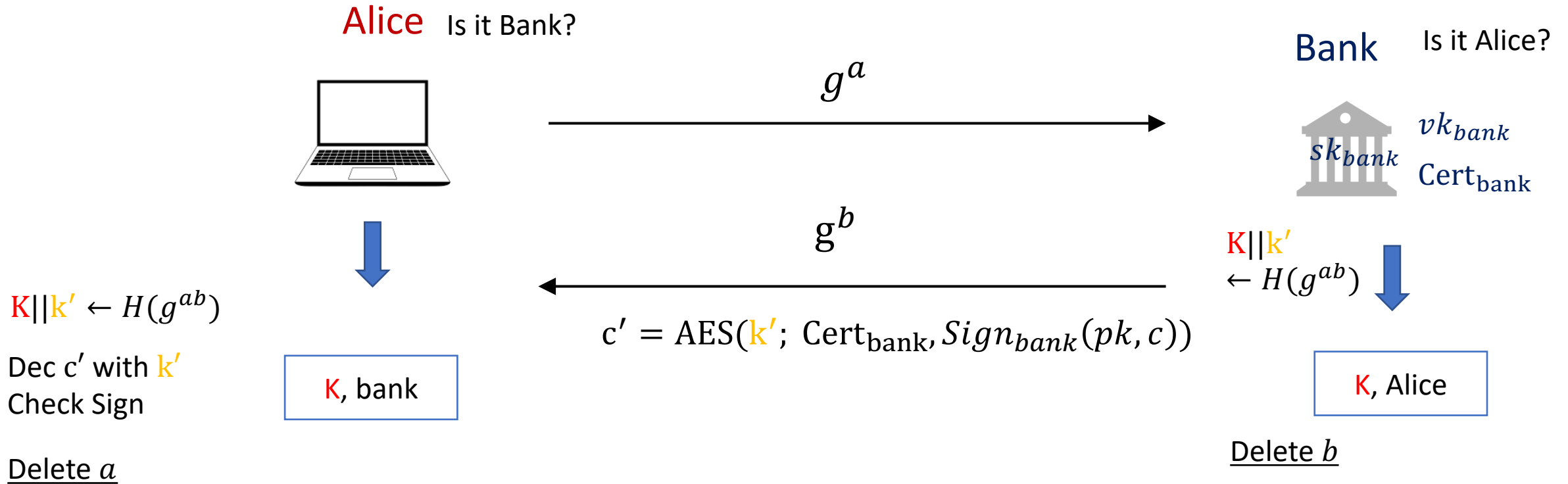
AKE4 of section 21.2 in [A Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography](#)

# Protocol #2



Main point: need to sign ephemeral  $pk$  from client  
 $\Rightarrow$  past access to HSM will not compromise current session

# Protocol #4 one side-use Diffie-Hellman instead of PKE



[variant of TLS 1.3]

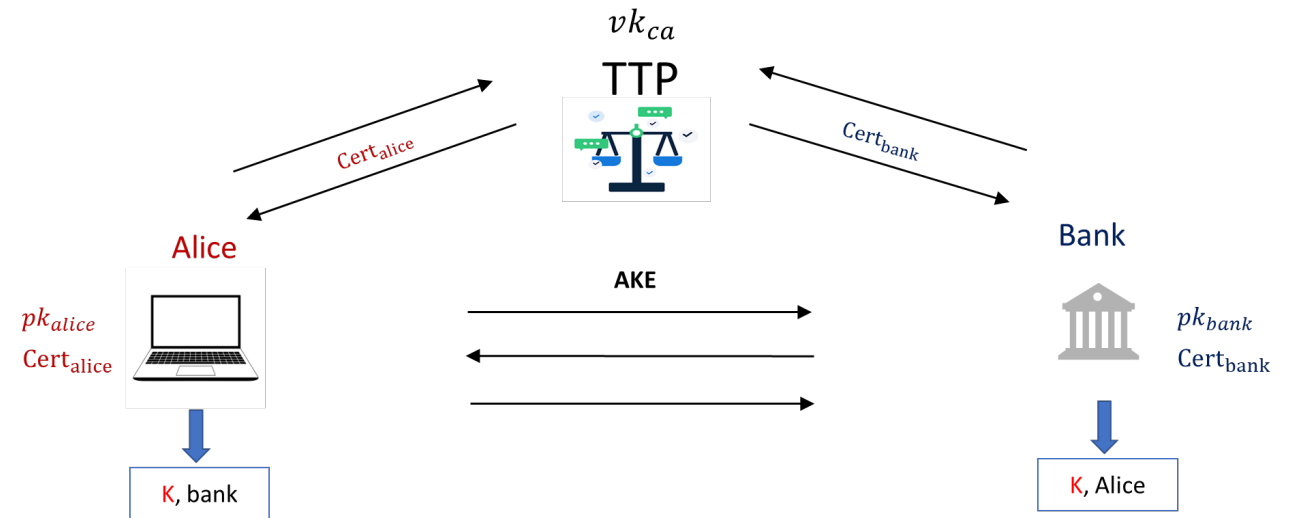
# A short summary

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- AKE requires TTP to certify user identities
- Security: static security, Forward secrecy, HSM secrecy
- We can build secure AKE via PKE, signature, and/or, AES

# Problem: public key infrastructure (PKI)

- A single TTP
- Single point of failure
  - What if TTP is corrupted?
- How should we deploy the trust of certification?
  - How does Bank communicate with TTP to get Cert\_bank?

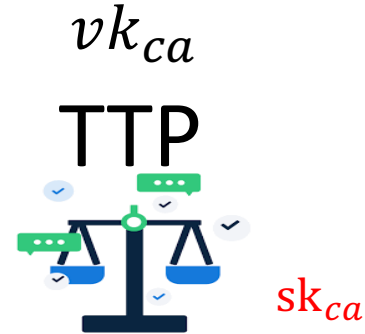




# TTP: Certification Authorities

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- Digital Certification

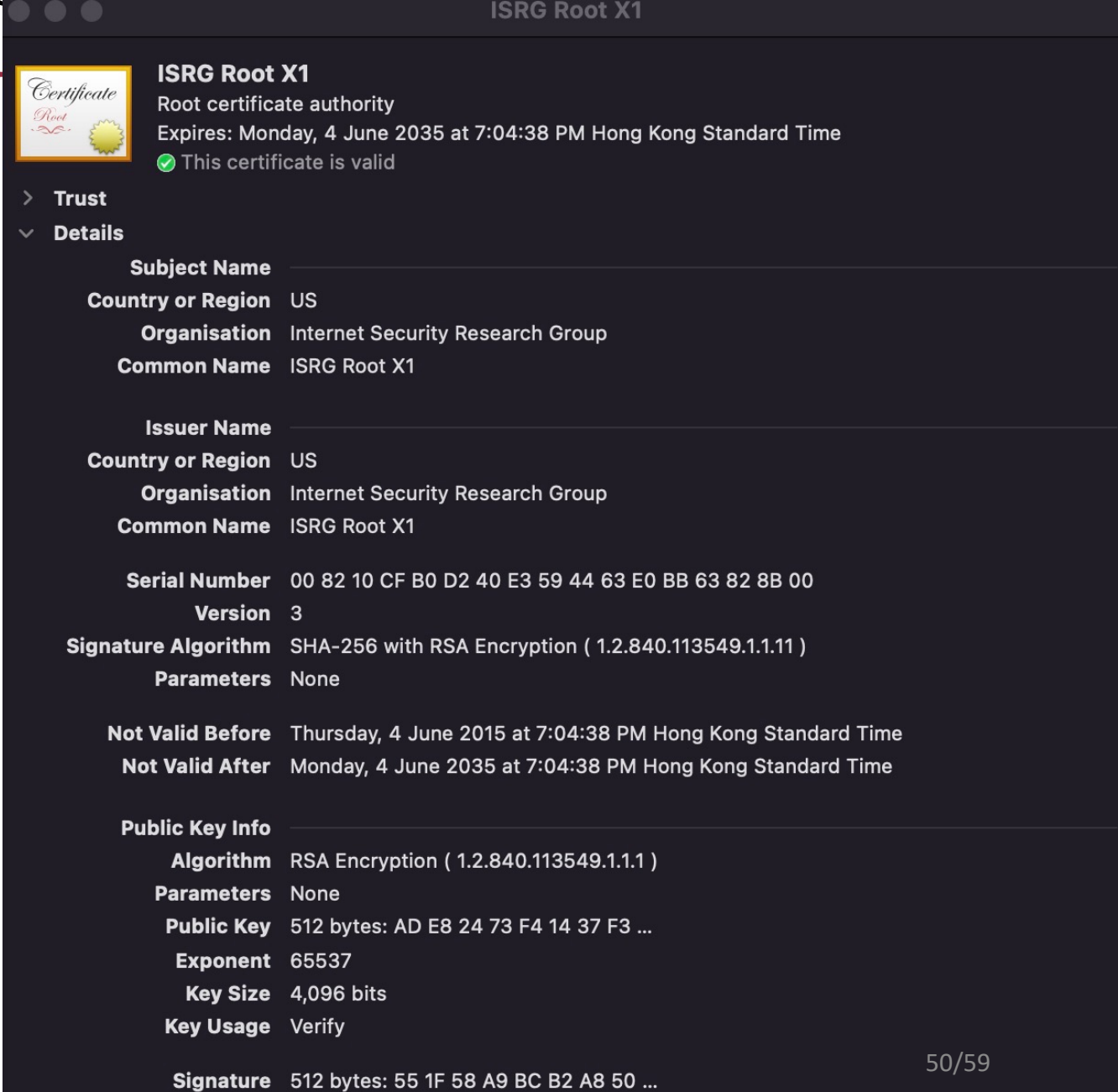


$\text{Cert}_{bank} = \text{Sign}(sk_{ca}, \text{Bank's public (sign) key is } vk_{bank}; \text{ URL is } \text{https://www.hangseng.com/})$

Any one with  $vk_{ca}$  can verify the  $\text{Cert}_{bank}$

# TTP: Certification Authorities

- Subject Name
  - Who's CA
- Issuer Name
  - Who gives this CA
  - Sign name
  - Valid
- PK information
  - pk
  - What is the pk is used
  - Key size



The screenshot displays the details of an X.509 certificate for ISRG Root X1. The interface includes a 'Certificate' icon, a title bar 'ISRG Root X1', and a status 'This certificate is valid'. It is organized into sections: 'Trust', 'Details', 'Subject Name', 'Issuer Name', 'Signature Algorithm', 'Not Valid Before/After', and 'Public Key Info'. Each section lists specific attributes such as Country or Region, Organisation, Common Name, Serial Number, Version, Signature Algorithm, Parameters, Not Valid Before/After dates, Algorithm, Parameters, Public Key, Exponent, Key Size, Key Usage, and Signature.

ISRG Root X1	
Root certificate authority	
Expires: Monday, 4 June 2035 at 7:04:38 PM Hong Kong Standard Time	
✔ This certificate is valid	
Trust	
Details	
<b>Subject Name</b>	
Country or Region	US
Organisation	Internet Security Research Group
Common Name	ISRG Root X1
<b>Issuer Name</b>	
Country or Region	US
Organisation	Internet Security Research Group
Common Name	ISRG Root X1
Serial Number	00 82 10 CF B0 D2 40 E3 59 44 63 E0 BB 63 82 8B 00
Version	3
Signature Algorithm	SHA-256 with RSA Encryption ( 1.2.840.113549.1.1.1 )
Parameters	None
Not Valid Before	Thursday, 4 June 2015 at 7:04:38 PM Hong Kong Standard Time
Not Valid After	Monday, 4 June 2035 at 7:04:38 PM Hong Kong Standard Time
<b>Public Key Info</b>	
Algorithm	RSA Encryption ( 1.2.840.113549.1.1.1 )
Parameters	None
Public Key	512 bytes: AD E8 24 73 F4 14 37 F3 ...
Exponent	65537
Key Size	4,096 bits
Key Usage	Verify
Signature	512 bytes: 55 1F 58 A9 BC B2 A8 50 ...

# Certification Authorities(CA)

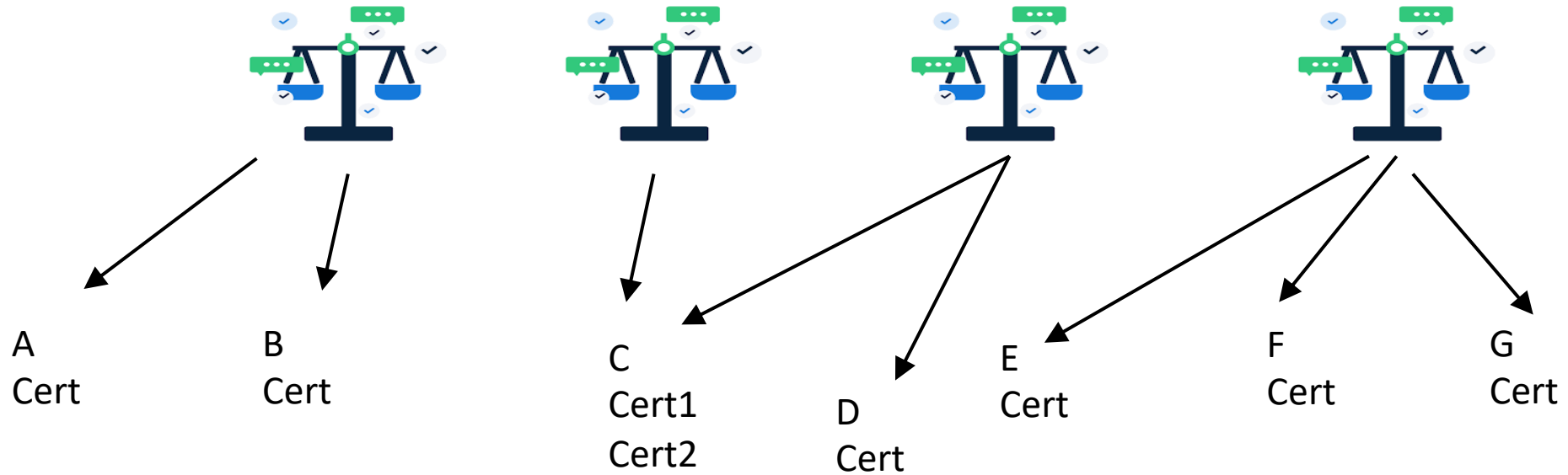
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- How should I get the  $vk_{ca}$  of TTP?
- a root CA's public key is provided together with the browser/System

# Multiple CAs

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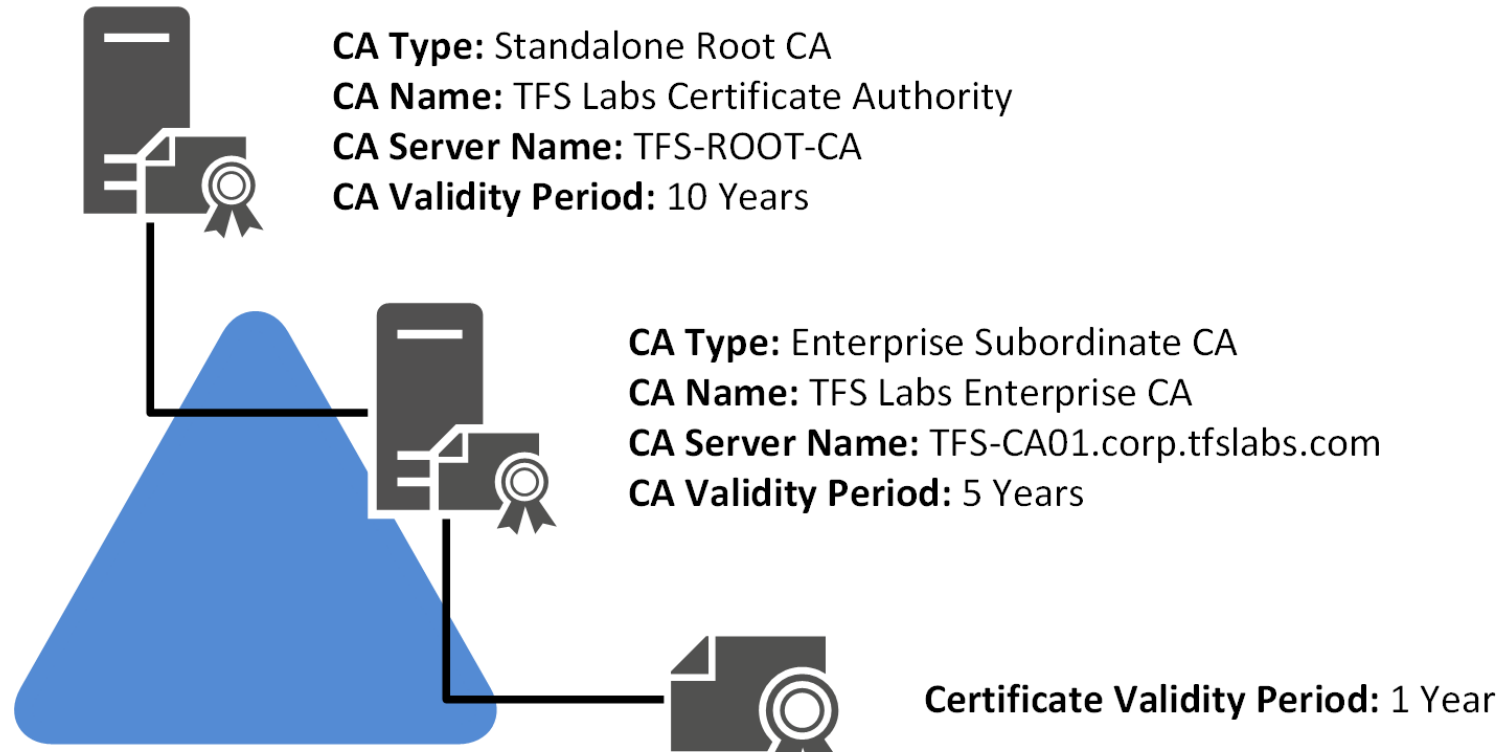


- Reduce the risk of single point of failure

# Authentication Chain

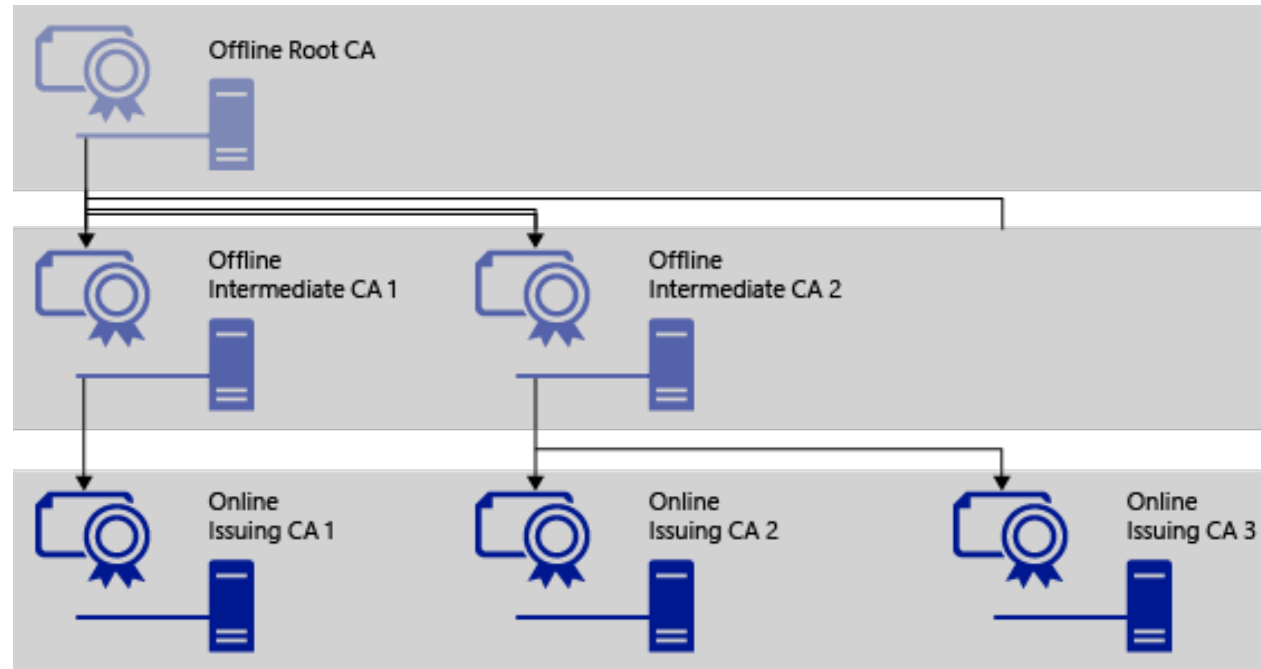
---

We could build the trust of certificate chains from a single Root CA

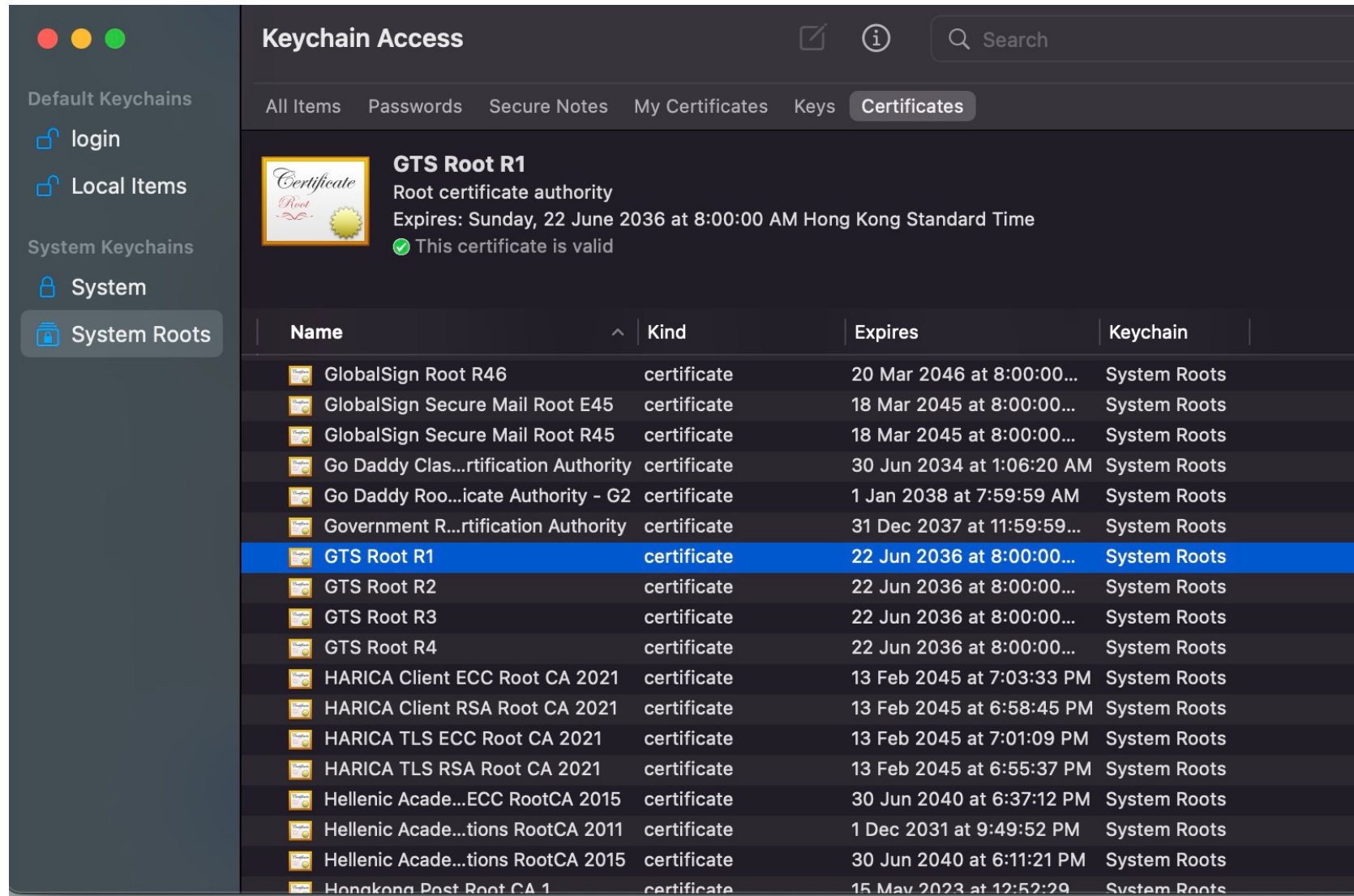


# Authentication Chain

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# Root CA in Mac OS



The screenshot shows the Keychain Access application window. The left sidebar is open to the 'System Roots' keychain. The main pane displays a detailed view of the 'GTS Root R1' certificate, which is a root certificate authority. Below this, a table lists all certificates in the System Roots keychain.

**Keychain Access**

Default Keychains

- login
- Local Items

System Keychains

- System
- System Roots**

**GTS Root R1**  
Root certificate authority  
Expires: Sunday, 22 June 2036 at 8:00:00 AM Hong Kong Standard Time  
✓ This certificate is valid

Name	Kind	Expires	Keychain
GlobalSign Root R46	certificate	20 Mar 2046 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
GlobalSign Secure Mail Root E45	certificate	18 Mar 2045 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
GlobalSign Secure Mail Root R45	certificate	18 Mar 2045 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
Go Daddy Clas...rtification Authority	certificate	30 Jun 2034 at 1:06:20 AM	System Roots
Go Daddy Roo...icate Authority - G2	certificate	1 Jan 2038 at 7:59:59 AM	System Roots
Government R...rtification Authority	certificate	31 Dec 2037 at 11:59:59...	System Roots
<b>GTS Root R1</b>	certificate	<b>22 Jun 2036 at 8:00:00...</b>	<b>System Roots</b>
GTS Root R2	certificate	22 Jun 2036 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
GTS Root R3	certificate	22 Jun 2036 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
GTS Root R4	certificate	22 Jun 2036 at 8:00:00...	System Roots
HARICA Client ECC Root CA 2021	certificate	13 Feb 2045 at 7:03:33 PM	System Roots
HARICA Client RSA Root CA 2021	certificate	13 Feb 2045 at 6:58:45 PM	System Roots
HARICA TLS ECC Root CA 2021	certificate	13 Feb 2045 at 7:01:09 PM	System Roots
HARICA TLS RSA Root CA 2021	certificate	13 Feb 2045 at 6:55:37 PM	System Roots
Hellenic Acade...ECC RootCA 2015	certificate	30 Jun 2040 at 6:37:12 PM	System Roots
Hellenic Acade...tions RootCA 2011	certificate	1 Dec 2031 at 9:49:52 PM	System Roots
Hellenic Acade...tions RootCA 2015	certificate	30 Jun 2040 at 6:11:21 PM	System Roots
Hongkong Post Root CA 1	certificate	15 May 2023 at 12:52:29	System Roots

# Root CA in Windows

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- Root CA in windows
  - Select Run from the Start menu, and then enter certlm.msc. The Certificate Manager tool for the local device appears.



# Root CA in web browser

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- <chrome://settings/security>
- Firefox

# Summary

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- Recall RSA and Digital Signature
- Authenticated Key Exchange
- Public Key Infrastructure(PKI)
- and Certification Authorities
- For your lecture notes, please refer to
- [KL] Section 12.7  
Dan Boneh and Victor Shoup, [A Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography](#), Section 22
- [Du] Section 24

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Thank you  
Happy Chinese New Year