

Introduction to Information Security

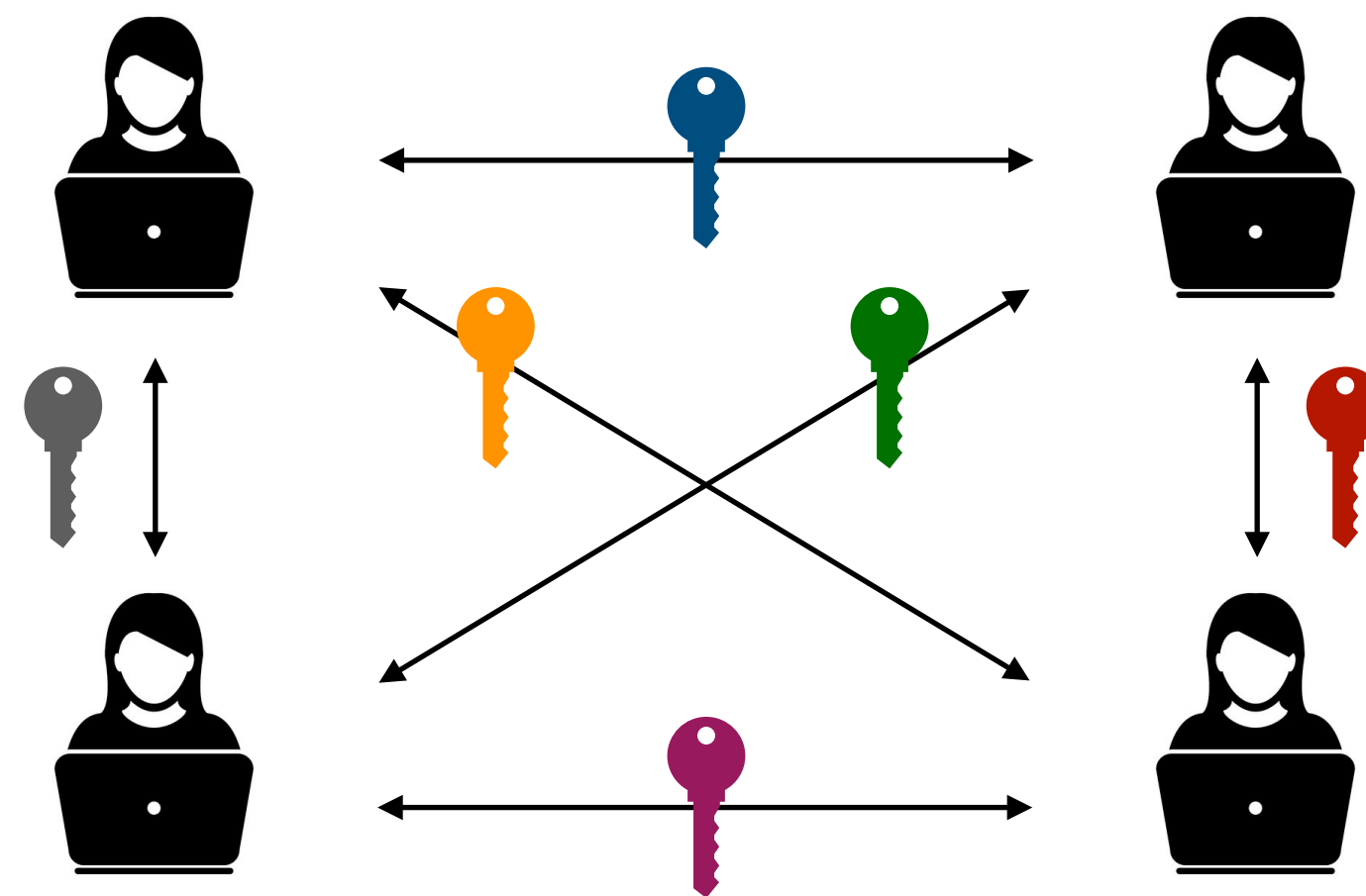
7. Public-key Cryptography

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Symmetric-Key Encryption

- Recap: the same key shared between two parties
- What happens if there are many users?
 - n users: $\binom{n}{2} = n(n-1)/2$
 - Example: 4950 keys / 100 users
- Key distribution and maintenance problem

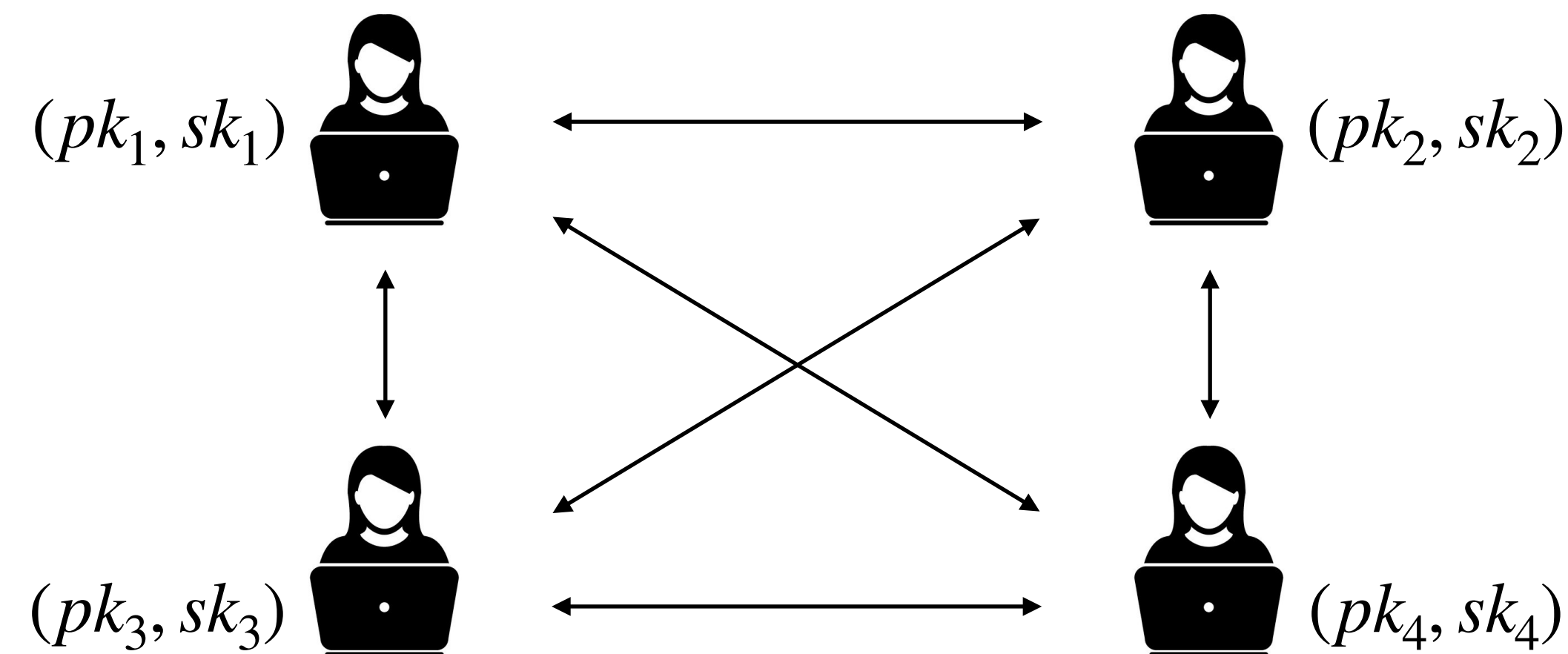


How to solve this issue?



Public-Key Revolution

- Invented in 1976 by Diffie and Hellman (ACM Turing Award 2015)
- Problem
 - pk : public key, widely disseminated, used for encryption
 - sk : private key, kept secretly, used for decryption
- n users: $2n$ keys



Instances

- Secret-key exchange (Diffie-Hellman key exchange)
- Confidentiality: public-key encryption (RSA)
- Integrity: digital signature

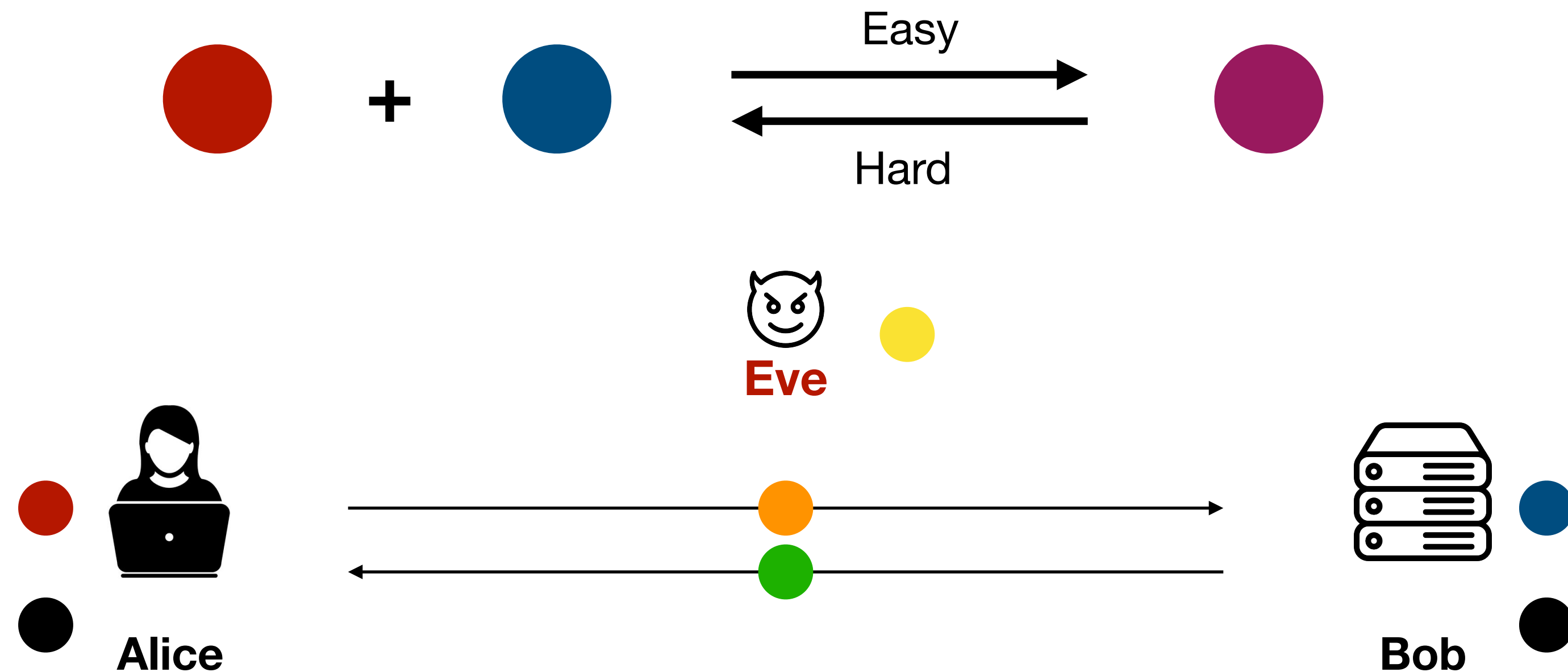
Secret Key Exchange

- Setting: Alice and Bob want to share a secret key using an insecure channel
- Problem: How can two people (who have never met) agree on a secret key?



Idea: One-way Function

- Easy in one direction but hard in the reverse direction
 - E.g., discrete logarithm (math), integer factorization (math), color mixing (painting), 비빔밥



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange (1)

- Pick two public values: large prime p and generator g
- Alice has secret value a
- Bob has secret value b

$$p = 23, g = 9$$

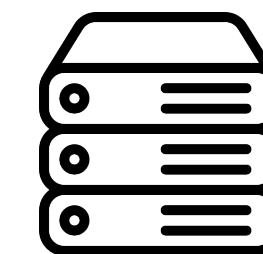


Eve



Alice

$$a = 4$$

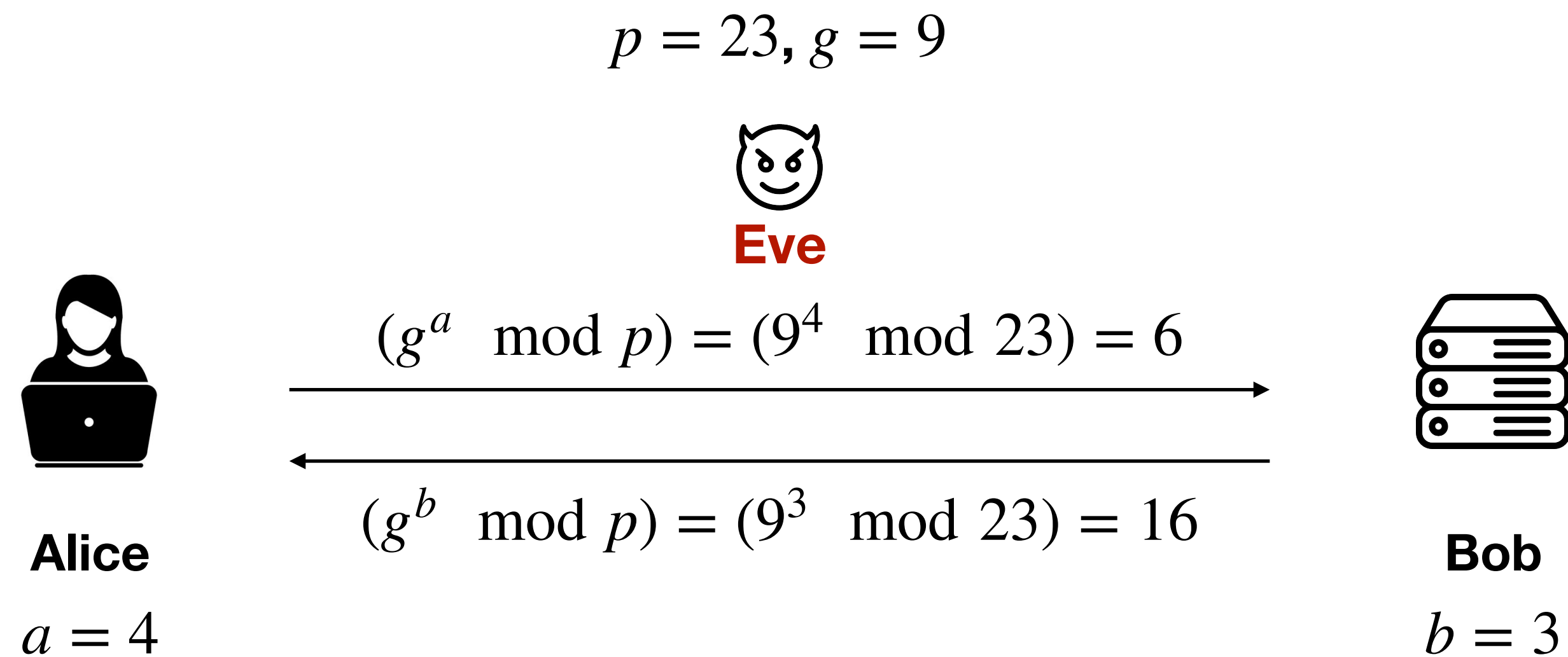


Bob

$$b = 3$$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange (2)

- Alice sends $A = (g^a \bmod p)$ to Bob
- Bob sends $B = (g^b \bmod p)$ to Alice



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange (3)

- Alice computes $(B^a \bmod p) = ((g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p) = (g^{ab} \bmod p)$
- Bob computes $(A^b \bmod p) = ((g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p) = (g^{ab} \bmod p)$
- Secret key: $g^{ab} \bmod p$

$$p = 23, g = 9$$



Eve

$$K = (16^4 \bmod 23) = 9$$

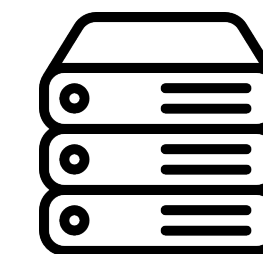


Alice

$$a = 4$$

$$(g^a \bmod p) = (9^4 \bmod 23) = 6$$

$$(g^b \bmod p) = (9^3 \bmod 23) = 16$$



Bob

$$b = 3$$

$$K = (6^3 \bmod 23) = 9$$

Correctness & Security

- Correctness: Is $K_{Alice} = (B^a \bmod p)$ equal to $K_{Bob} = (A^b \bmod p)$?

$$(B^a \bmod p) = ((g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p) = (g^{ab} \bmod p)$$

$$(A^b \bmod p) = ((g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p) = (g^{ab} \bmod p)$$

Theorem

$$((A \bmod C)^B \bmod C) = (A^B \bmod C)$$

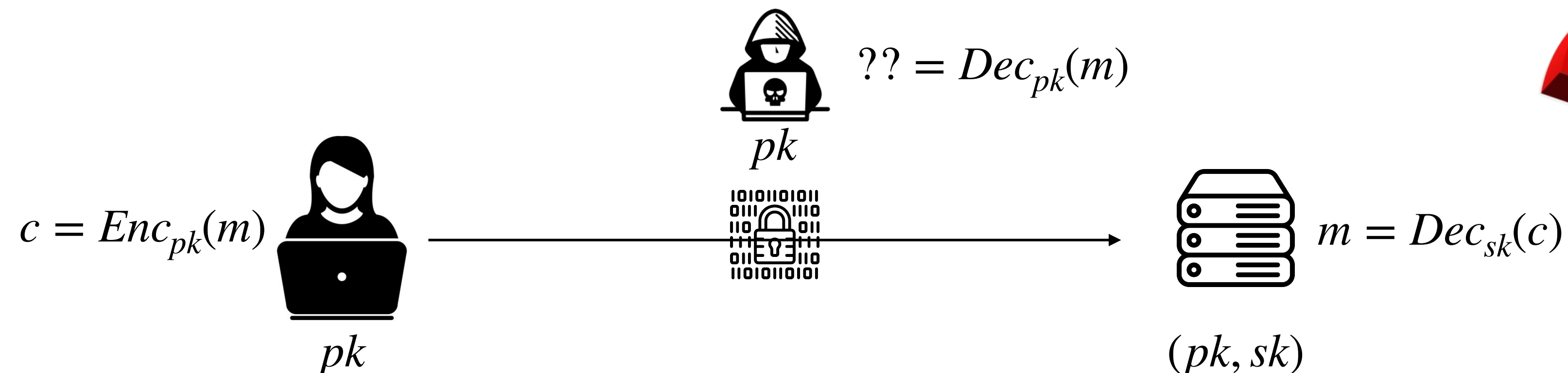
- Security
 - Eve cannot efficiently compute $(g^{ab} \bmod p)$ without knowing a and b
 - Eve can observe p , g , $(g^a \bmod p)$, and $(g^b \bmod p)$
 - Discrete logarithm problem: given m , n , and p , find x s.t. $(m^x = n \bmod p)$
 - No efficient algorithms

Instances

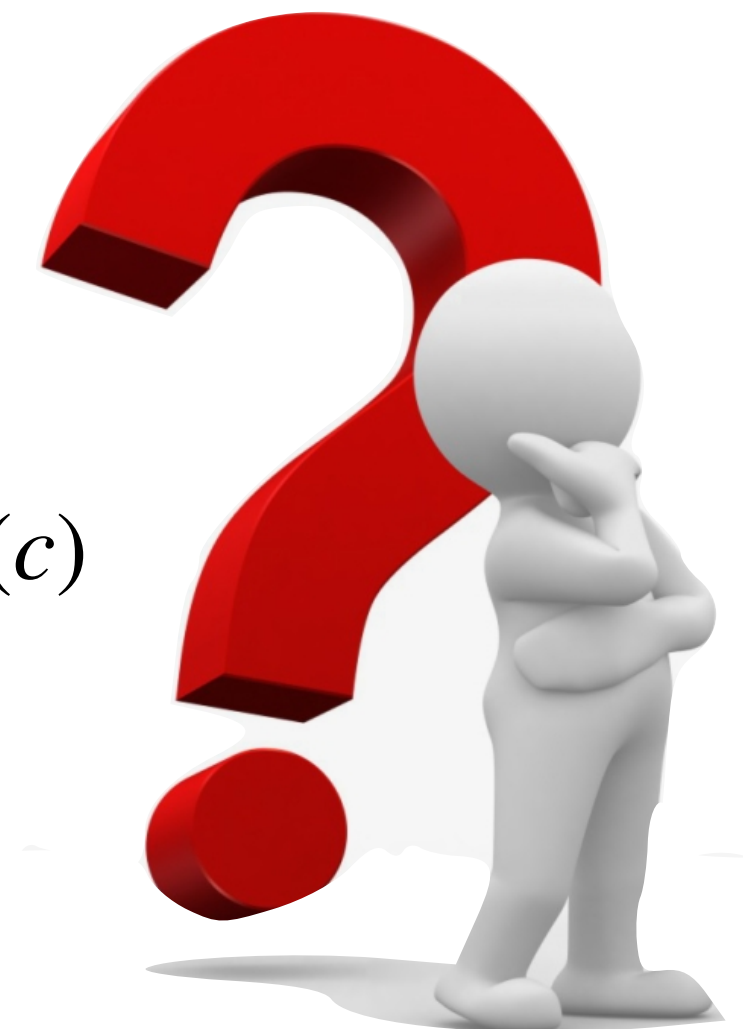
- Secret-key exchange (Diffie-Hellman key exchange)
- Confidentiality: public-key encryption (RSA)
- Integrity: digital signature

Confidentiality with Public-Key

- Generate (pk, sk) and publicize pk
- Anyone with pk can encrypt message
- Only the one with sk can decrypt message
 - Cannot decrypt with pk



How is it possible?

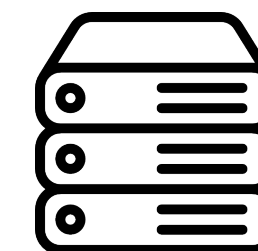


RSA Cryptosystem

- Invented by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman in 1977
 - ACM Turing award in 2002
- Rely on the practical difficulty of factoring the product of two large prime numbers
 - But efficiently solvable by quantum computers

RSA Algorithm (1)

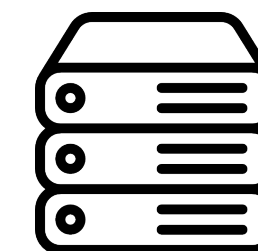
- Select two large primes p and q
- Compute $n = pq$ and $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$



$$\begin{aligned} p &= 7, q = 13 \\ n &= 91, \phi(n) = 72 \end{aligned}$$

RSA Algorithm (2)

- Choose e s.t. $1 < e < \phi(n)$ and $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- Choose d s.t. $1 < d < \phi(n)$ and $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$



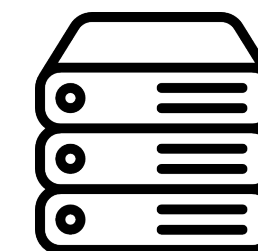
$p = 7, q = 13$
 $n = 91, \phi(n) = 72$
 $e = 5, d = 29$

RSA Algorithm (3)

- Public key: (n, e)
- Private key: (n, d)



$$pk = (n, e) = (91, 5)$$



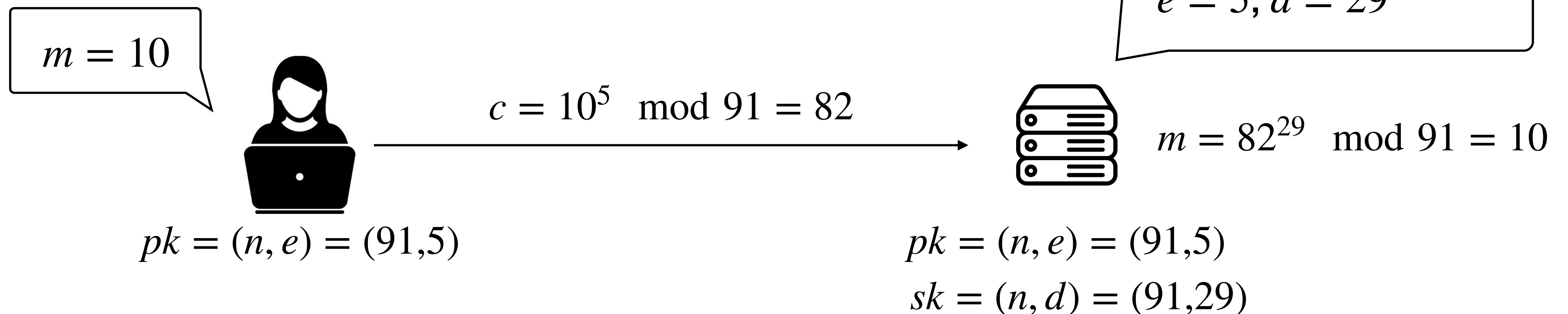
$$pk = (n, e) = (91, 5)$$

$$sk = (n, d) = (91, 29)$$

$$\begin{aligned} p &= 7, q = 13 \\ n &= 91, \phi(n) = 72 \\ e &= 5, d = 29 \end{aligned}$$

RSA Algorithm (4)

- Encryption
 - For plaintext $m < n$, $c = m^e \bmod n$
- Decryption
 - $m = c^d \bmod n$
- Correctness: $(m^e)^d = m \bmod n$



Correctness & Security

- Correctness

$$(m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m^{1+k \cdot \phi(n)}$$

“Choose d s.t. $1 < d < \phi(n)$ and
 $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ ”

$$m^{1+k \cdot \phi(n)} = m \pmod{n}$$

Euler's Theorem

If p and q are primes, $n = pq$, then
 $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_n. a^{k \cdot \phi(n) + 1} = a \pmod{n}$

- Security

- Adversary cannot efficiently compute p and q from n
- Adversary can observe n and e (i.e., public key) but cannot efficiently compute d
- Integer factorization problem: given n , find prime number p and q s.t. $n = pq$

Comparison to Private-Key Encryption

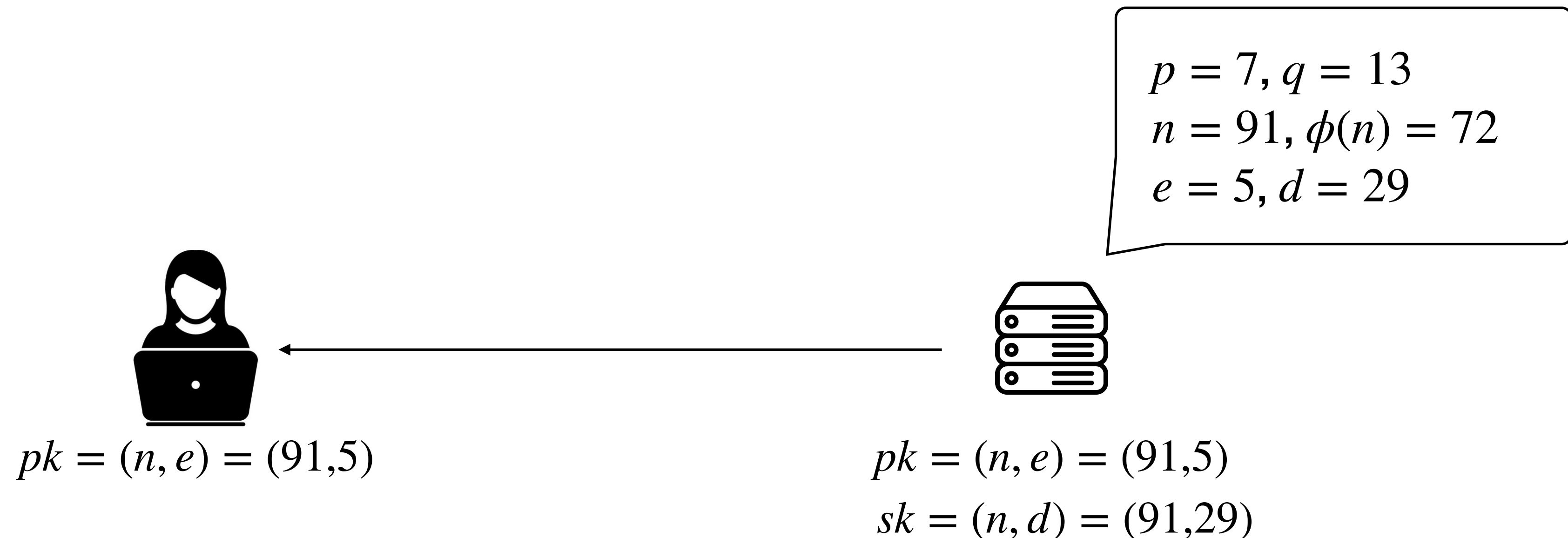
- Pros
 - Does not need any secure key distribution
 - Enable multiple senders to communicate privately with a single receiver
- Cons
 - Roughly 2-3 orders of magnitude slower

Instances

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- Integrity: digital signature

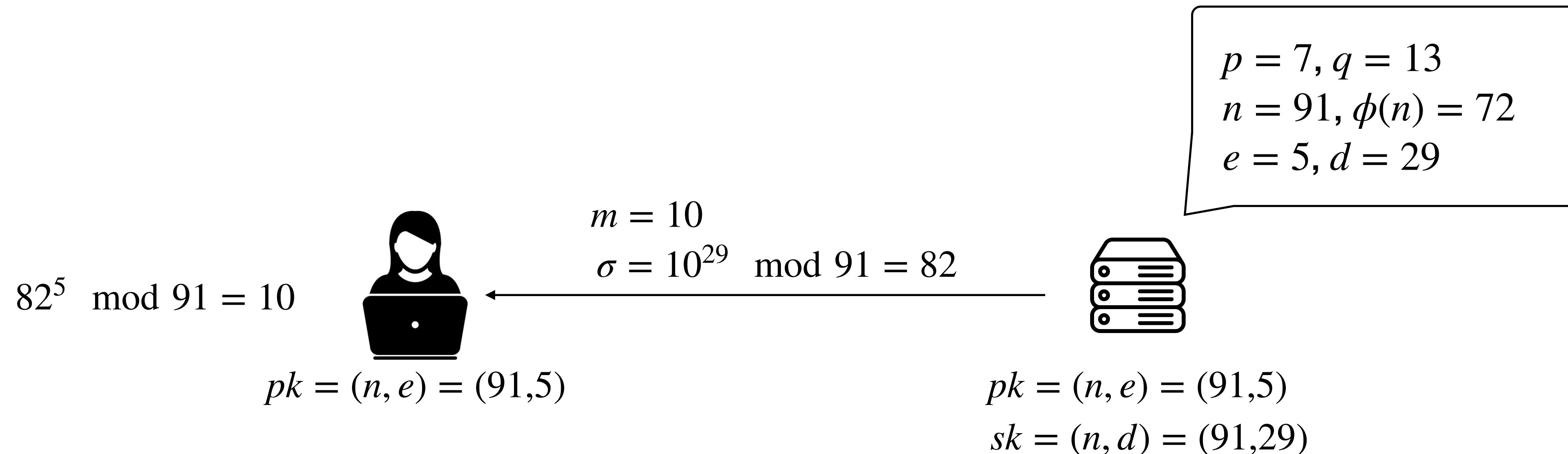
Digital Signature (1)

- Only the one with sk can generate signature σ for message m
- Anyone with pk can verify the signature (i.e., integrity)
- Example: SW patch distribution



Digital Signature (2)

- Send message m and signature $\sigma = m^d \bmod n$
- Verify the integrity by checking m is equal to $\sigma^e = m^{ed} \bmod n$
- Correctness: $(m^d)^e = m \bmod n$



Correctness & Security

- Correctness

$$(m^d)^e = m^{ed} = m^{1+k \cdot \phi(n)}$$

“Choose d s.t. $1 < d < \phi(n)$ and
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$$m^{1+k \cdot \phi(n)} = m \pmod{n}$$

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- Security

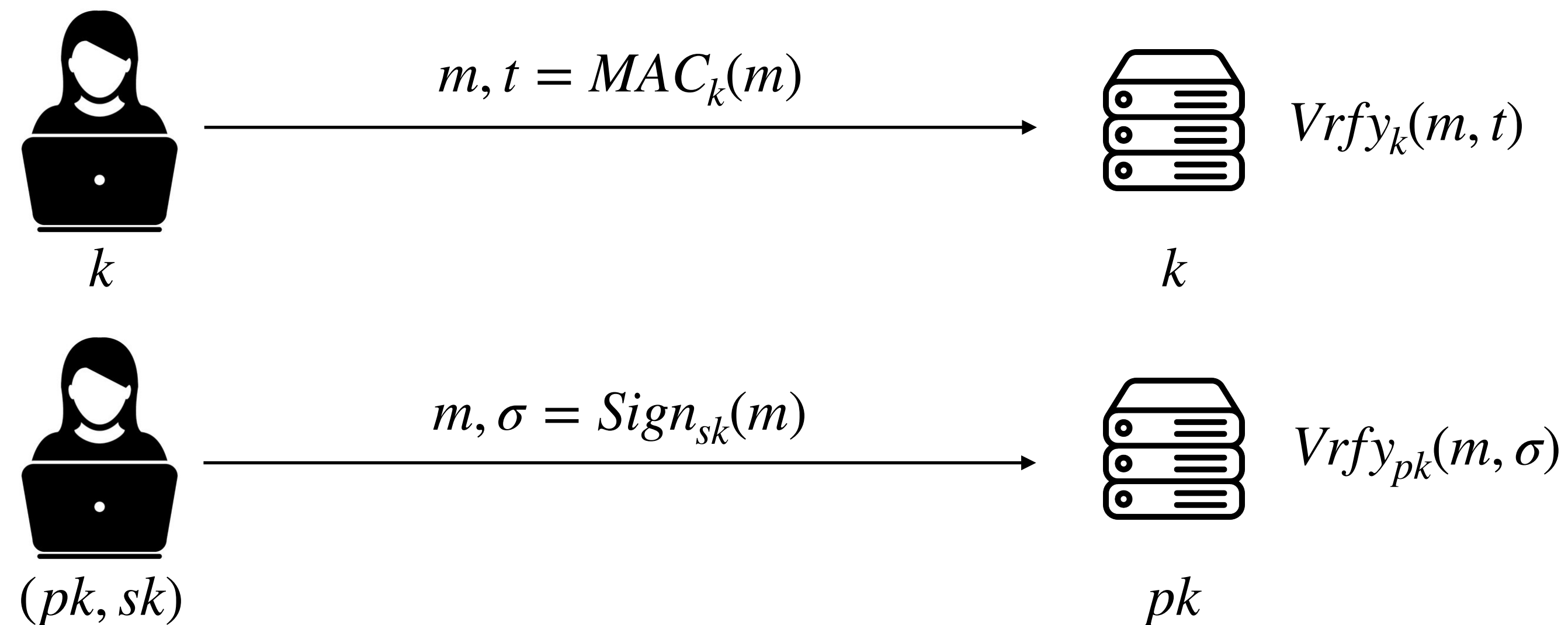
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- Adversary can observe n and e (i.e., public key) but cannot efficiently compute d
- Integer factorization problem: given n , find prime number p and q s.t. $n = pq$

Digital Signature in Practice

- Authentication: proof that you or something you created is legitimate
- Non-repudiation: signed document becomes proof that Alice indeed signed the document
 - Only Alice can generate (m, σ) and
 - Cannot deny having created the signature

Comparison to MAC

- Both: ensure the integrity of transmitted messages
- Pros: public verifiability
 - Multiple receivers can verify the signature
- Cons: efficiency

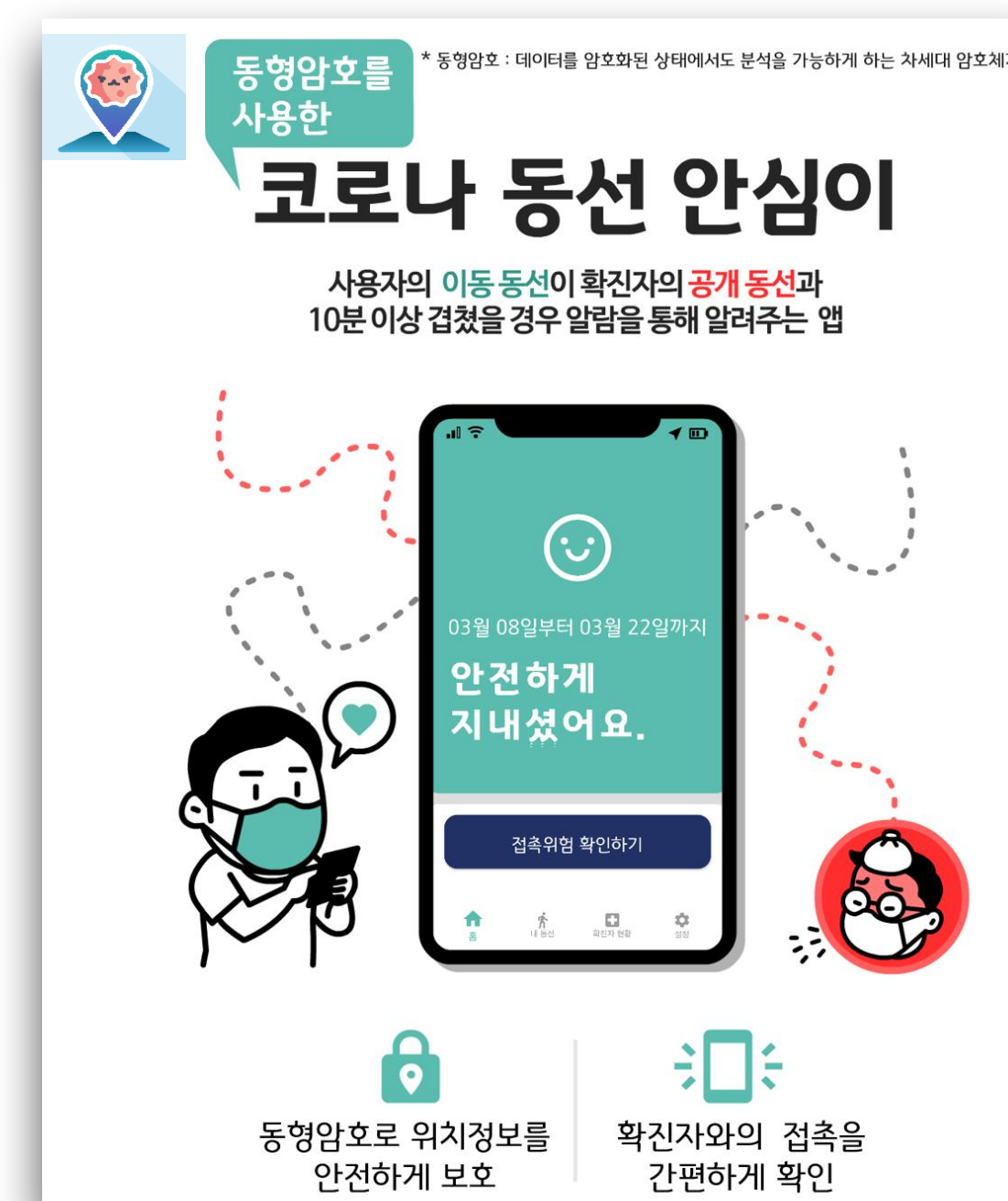
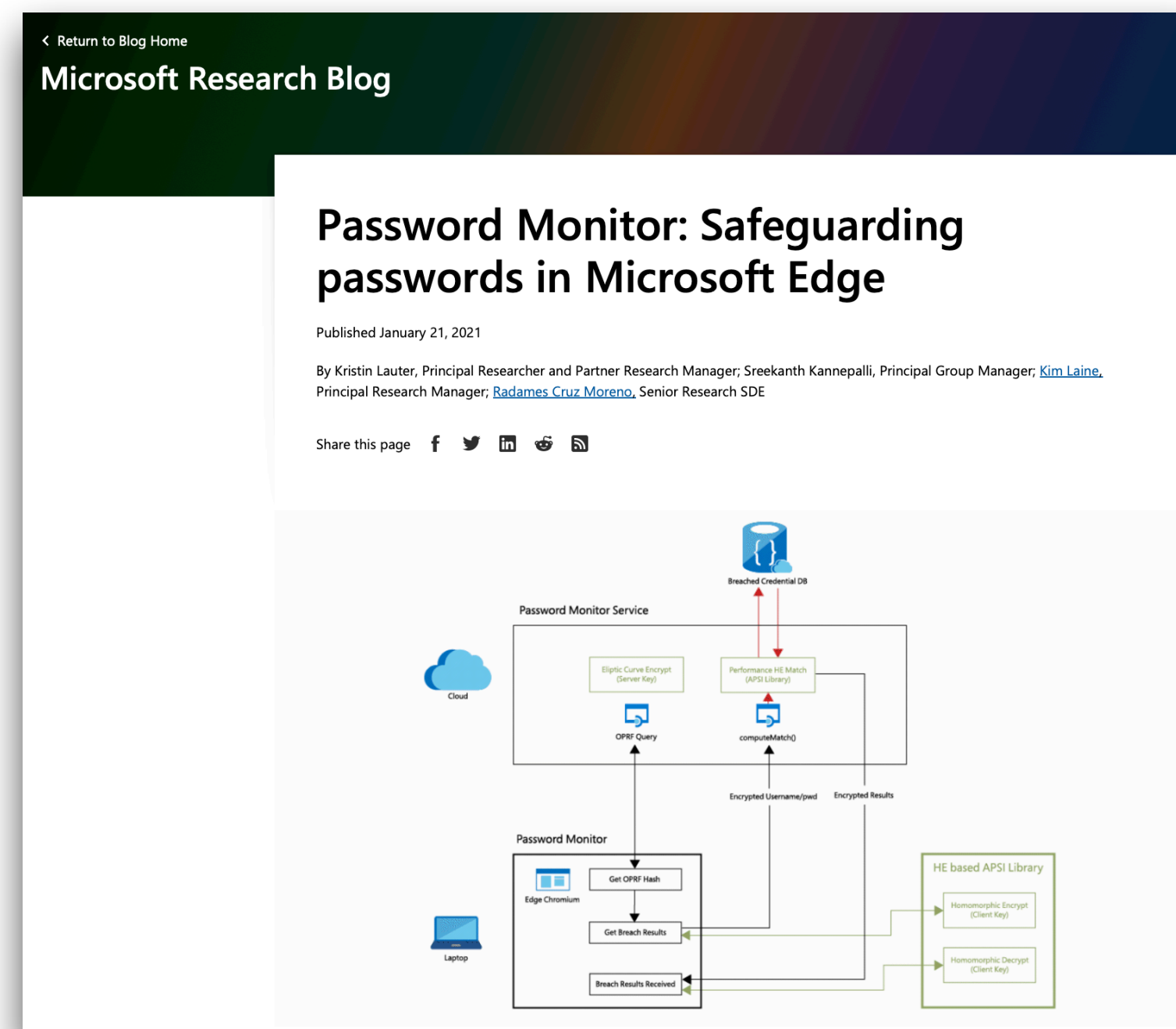


Holy Grail of Cryptography

- Is it possible to provide a secure public service? (i.e., computations on encrypted data)
- Example
 - Average GPA in the class with encrypted individual GPAs
 - Covid-19 alert with encrypted location information
 - Searchable cloud storage with encrypted data
 - Election with encrypted votes
- Necessary property: homomorphism
 - $Dec(c_1 \oplus c_2) = Dec(c_1) \oplus Dec(c_2)$

Homomorphic Encryption (동형 암호)

- Allows computations on encrypted data
- “A Fully Homomorphic Encryption Scheme”, C. Gentry, 2009
- Applications



Example

- Plaintext space: $\{0,1\}$
- Public key: pq
- Private key: p
- Encryption: $Enc(m) = m + pq + 2\epsilon$
- Decryption: $Dec(c) = (c \bmod p) \bmod 2$
- Homomorphism
 - $Dec(Enc(m_1) + Enc(m_2)) = Dec(Enc(m_1 + m_2)) = m_1 + m_2$
 - $Dec(Enc(m_1) \times Enc(m_2)) = Dec(Enc(m_1 \times m_2)) = m_1 \times m_2$

Summary

- Public-key revolution: solve key distribution and maintenance problem
 - Diffie-Hellman key exchange
 - Public-key encryption
 - Digital signature
- New emerging technology: homomorphic encryption
 - Computation on encrypted data
 - Application: privacy-preserving services