



# CSE5014 CRYPTOGRAPHY AND NETWORK SECURITY

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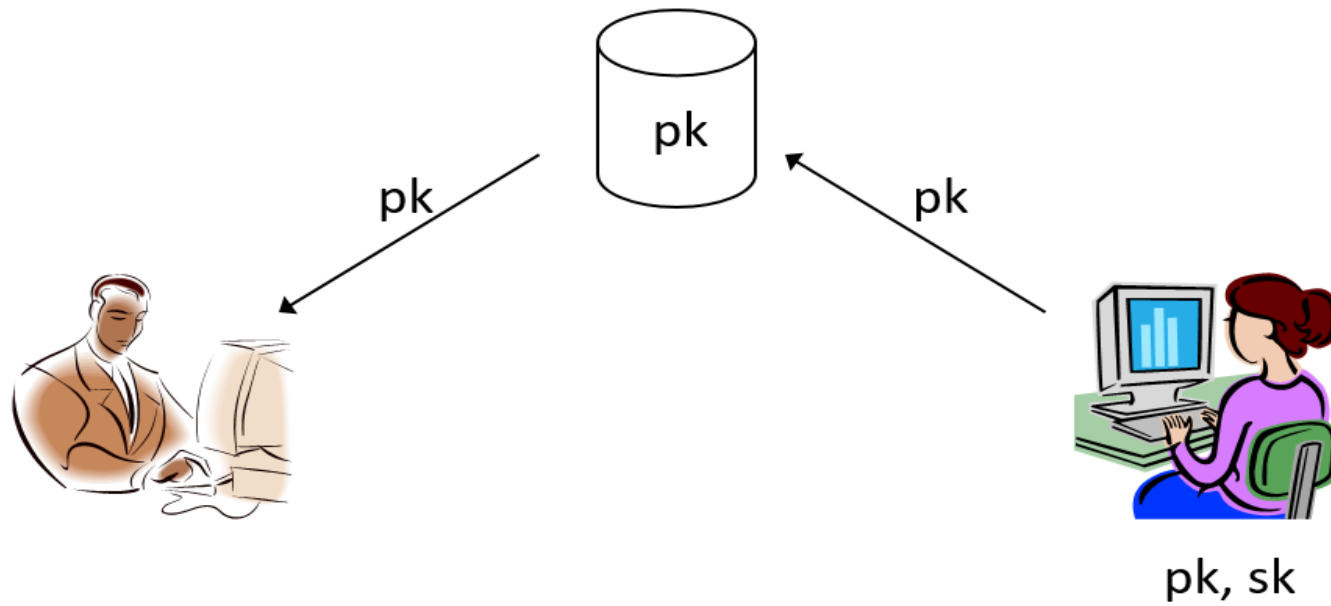
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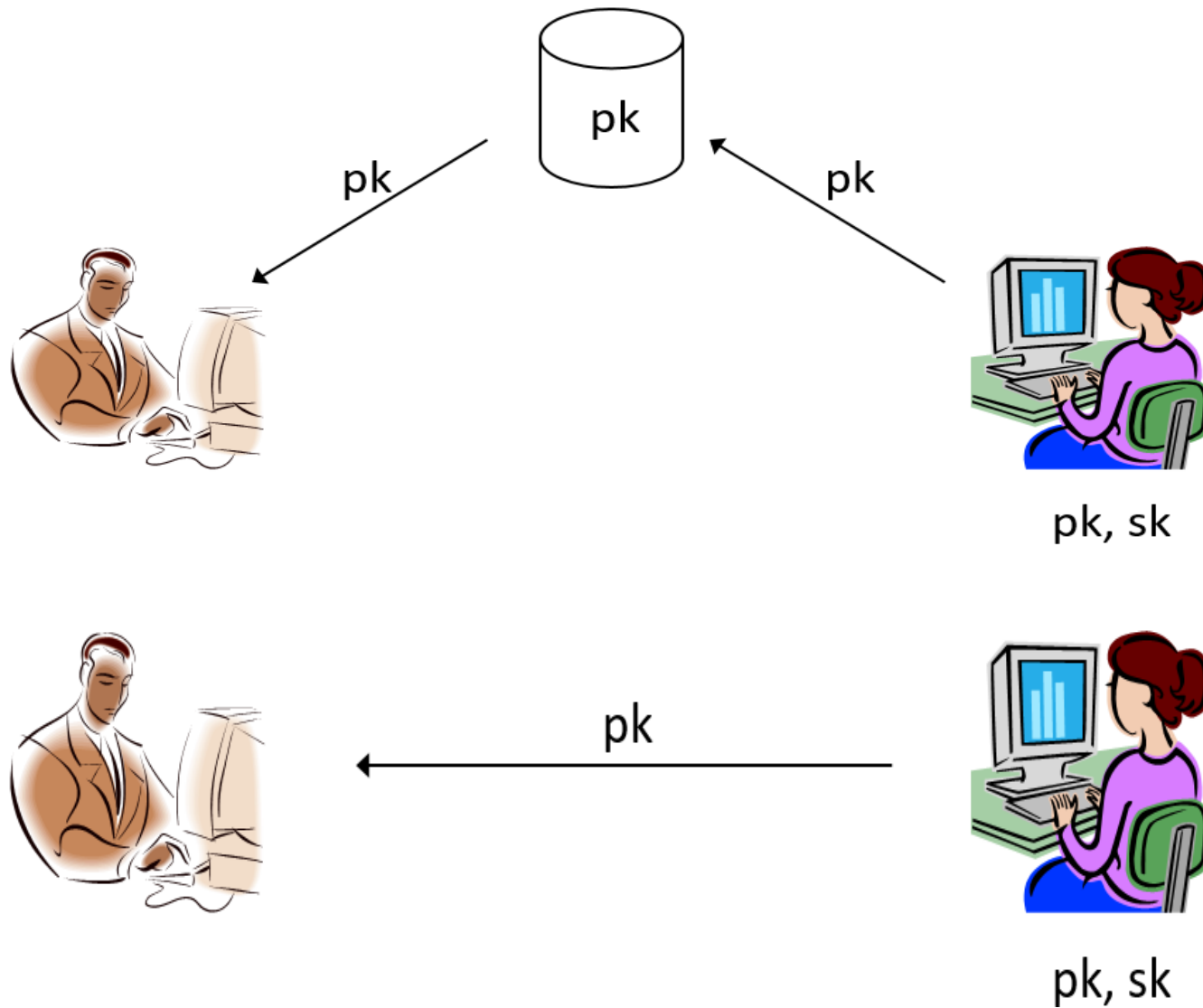
# The public-key setting

- A party generates a *pair* of keys: a *public* key *pk* and a *private* key *sk*
  - Public key is widely disseminated
  - Private key is kept **secret**, and shared with no one
- Private key used by the party who generated it; public key used by everyone else
  - Also called *asymmetric cryptography*
- Security must hold even if the attacker knows *pk*

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	Private-key setting	Public-key setting
Secrecy	Private-key encryption	Public-key encryption
Integrity	Message authentication codes	Digital signature schemes

# Addressing drawbacks of private-key crypto

- Key distribution
  - Public keys can be distributed over *public* (but *authenticated*) channels!





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- Key management in large systems of  $N$  users
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- Key management in large systems of  $N$  users
  - Each user stores 1 private key and  $N - 1$  public keys; only  $N$  keys overall
  - Public keys can be stored in a central directory
- Applicability in “open systems”
  - Even parties who have **no** prior relationship can find each others' public keys and use them



# Why study private-key crypto?

- Private-key cryptography is more suitable for certain applications
  - E.g., disk encryption

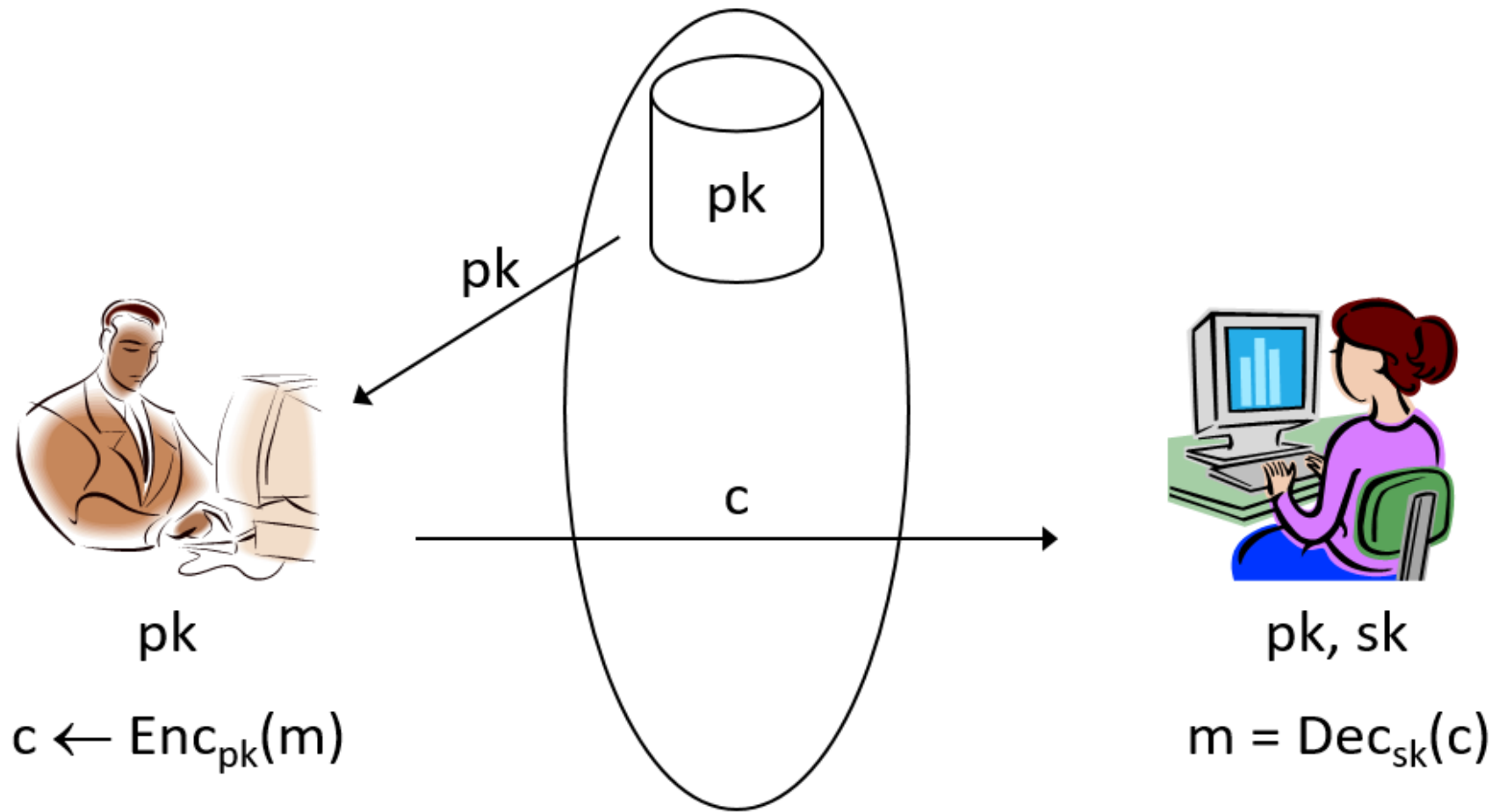


# Why study private-key crypto?

- Private-key cryptography is more suitable for certain applications
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- Public-key crypto is roughly 2 – 3 orders of magnitude *slower* than private-key crypto
  - If private-key crypto is an option, use it!
  - Private-key crypto is used for *efficiency* even in the public-key setting



# Public-key encryption



# Public-key encryption

- **Theorem 12.2** A *public-key encryption* scheme is composed of three PPT algorithms:
  - *Gen*: *key-generation algorithm* that on input  $1^n$  outputs  $pk, sk$
  - *Enc*: *encryption algorithm* that on input  $pk$  and a message  $m$  outputs a ciphertext  $c$
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For **all**  $m$  and  $pk, sk$  output by *Gen*,

$$Dec_{sk}(Enc_{pk}(m)) = m$$



# CPA-security

- Fix a public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi$  and an adversary  $A$
- Define experiment  $\text{PubK-CPA}_{A,\Pi}(n)$ :
  - Run  $\text{Gen}(1^n)$  to get keys  $pk, sk$
  - Give  $pk$  to  $A$ , who outputs  $m_0, m_1$  of same length
  - Choose uniform  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  and compute the ciphertext  $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_b)$ ; give  $c$  to  $A$
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  - $A$  outputs a guess  $b'$ , and the experiment evaluates to 1 if  $b' = b$
- **Theorem 12.3** Public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi$  is *CPA-secure* if for all PPT adversaries  $A$ :
$$\Pr[PubK-CPA_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \leq 1/2 + \text{negl}(n)$$



# Notes on the definition

- No encryption oracle?!



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# Notes on the definition

- No encryption oracle?!
  - Encryption oracle **redundant** in public-key setting
- ⇒ No *perfectly secret* public-key encryption
- ⇒ No *deterministic* public-key encryption can be CPA-secure
- ⇒ CPA-security implies security for encryption multiple messages as in the private-key case



# Perfectly secret public-key encryption

- **Definition 12.4** A public-key encryption scheme is *perfectly secret* if for all public keys  $pk$ , all messages  $m_0, m_1$ , all ciphertexts  $c$ , and all algorithms  $A$ , we have:

$$\Pr[A(pk, c) = 0 | c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_0)] = \Pr[A(pk, c) = 0 | c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_{pk}(m_1)]$$



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**Theorem 12.5** No public-key encryption scheme is *perfectly secret*.

**Proof.**



# Recall: plain RSA

- Choose random, equal-length primes  $p, q$
- Compute modulus  $N = pq$
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 $(x^d)^e = x^{de} = x \bmod N$
- *RSA assumption*: given  $N, e$  only, it is *hard* to compute the  $e^{th}$  root of a uniform  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$



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- *RSA assumption* only refers to hardness of computing the  $e^{th}$  roots *in its entirety*
  - Partial information about the  $e^{th}$  root may be leaked
- Plain RSA should *never* be used!



# PKCS #1 v1.5

- Standard issued by RSA labs in 1993
- Idea: add *random padding*
  - To encrypt  $m$ , choose **random**  $r$
  - $c = [(r|m)^e \bmod N]$



# PKCS #1 v1.5

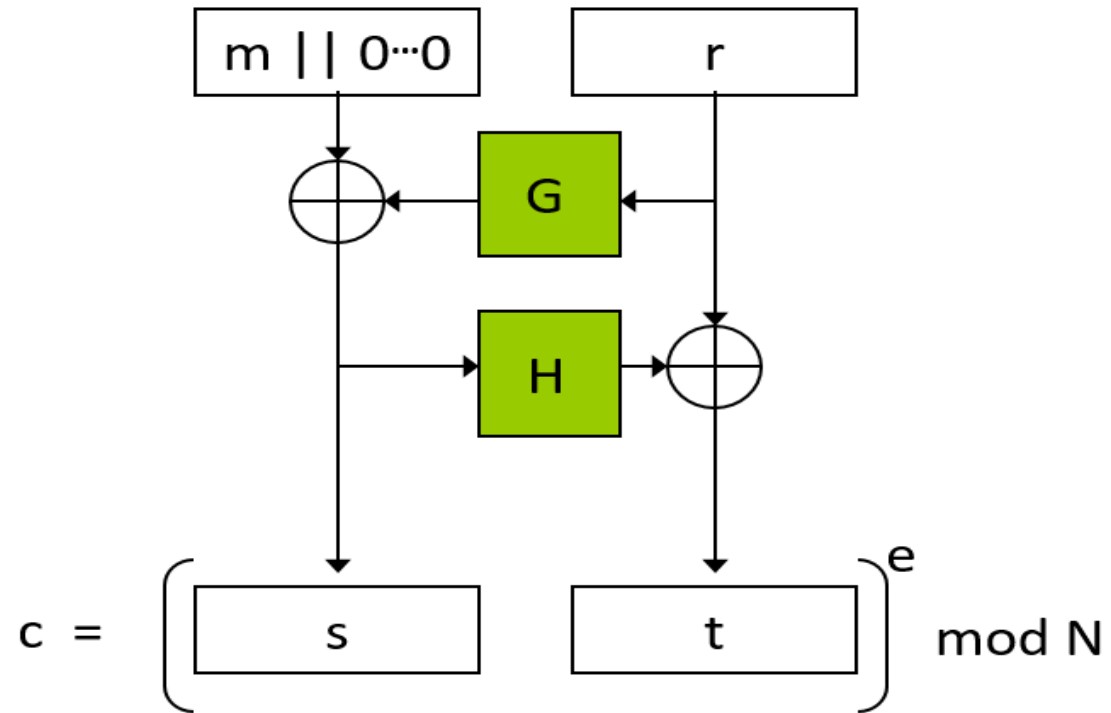
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- Idea: add *random padding*
  - To encrypt  $m$ , choose **random**  $r$
  - $c = [(r||m)^e \bmod N]$
- Issues:
  - **No** proof of *CPA-security* (unless  $m$  is very short)
  - *Chosen-plaintext attacks* known if  $r$  is too short
  - *Chosen-ciphertext attacks* possible



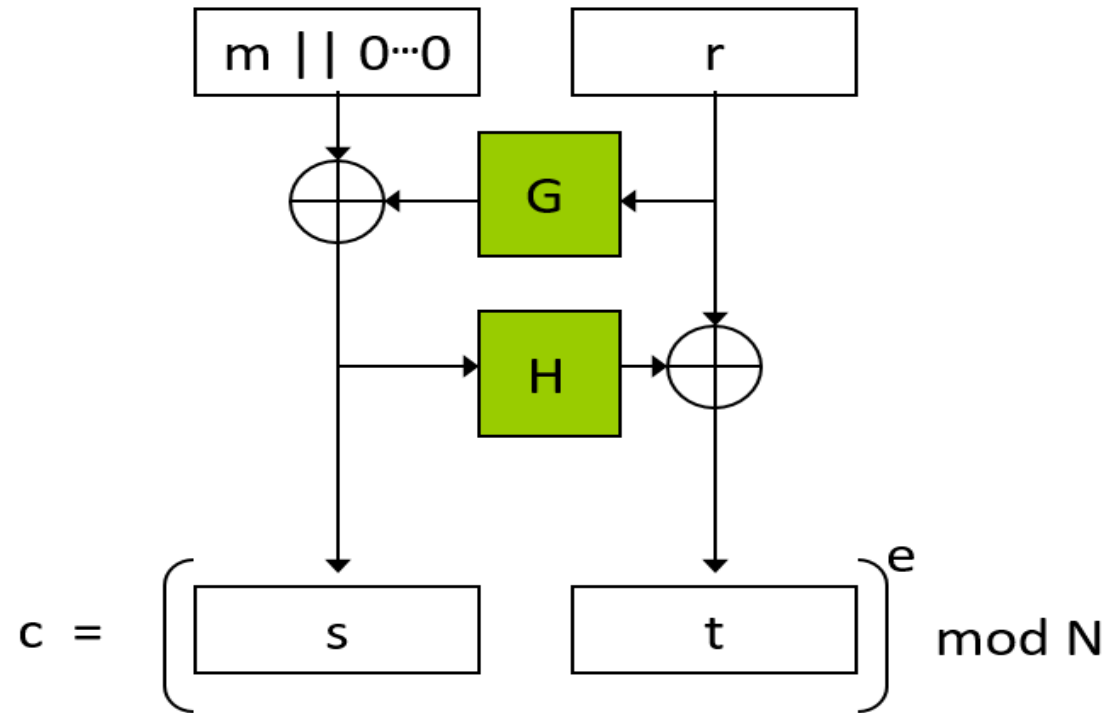
- *Optimal asymmetric encryption padding*
  - (OAEP) applied to message first
- This padding introduces *redundancy*, so that **not** every  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is a valid ciphertext
  - Need to check for proper format upon decryption
  - Return **error** if not properly formatted



# OAEP

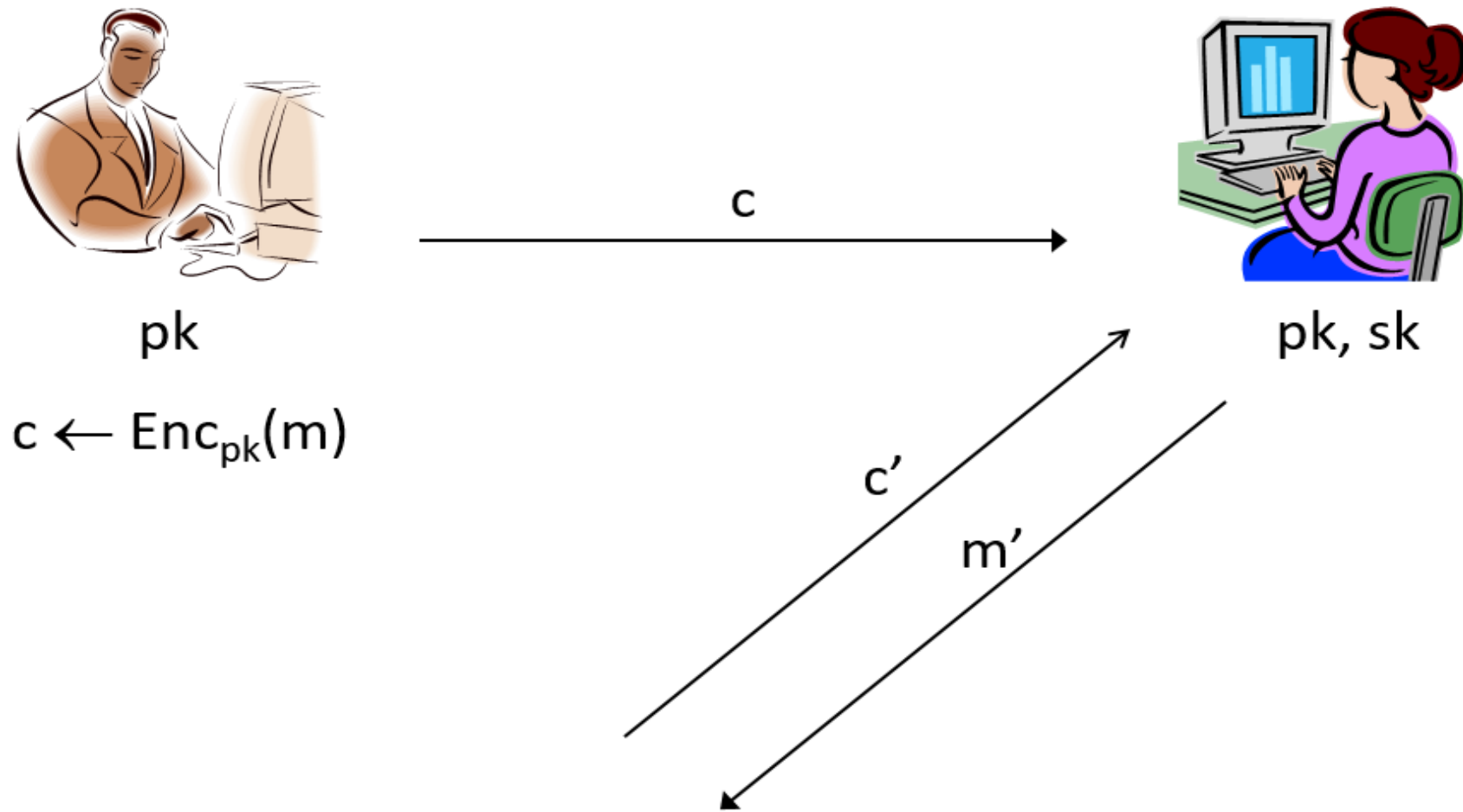


# OAEP



- RSA-OAEP can be proven *CCA-secure* under the *RSA assumption*, if  $G$  and  $H$  are modeled as *random oracles*

# Chosen-ciphertext attacks



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- *Chosen-ciphertext attacks* are arguably even a greater concern in the public-key setting
  - Attacker might be a legitimate sender
  - Easier for attacker to obtain full decryptions of ciphertexts of its choice



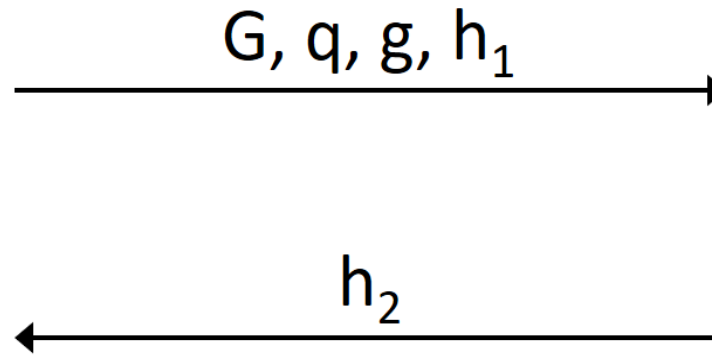
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- Related concern: *malleability*
  - I.e., given a ciphertext  $c$  that is the encryption of an unknown message  $m$ , might be possible to produce ciphertext  $c'$  that decrypts to a related message  $m'$
  - This is also **undesirable** in the public-key setting

# Diffie-Hellman key exchange



$$\begin{aligned}(G, q, g) &\leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n) \\ x &\leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \\ h_1 &= g^x\end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned}y &\leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \\ h_2 &= g^y\end{aligned}$$

$$k = (h_1)^y$$

# El Gamal encryption



$$(G, q, g) \leftarrow \mathcal{G}(1^n)$$

$$x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$$

$$h_1 = g^x$$

$$k = (h_2)^x$$

$$m = c_2/k$$

$$\xrightarrow{G, q, g, h_1}$$

$$\xleftarrow{h_2}$$

$$\xleftarrow{c_2 = k \cdot m}$$

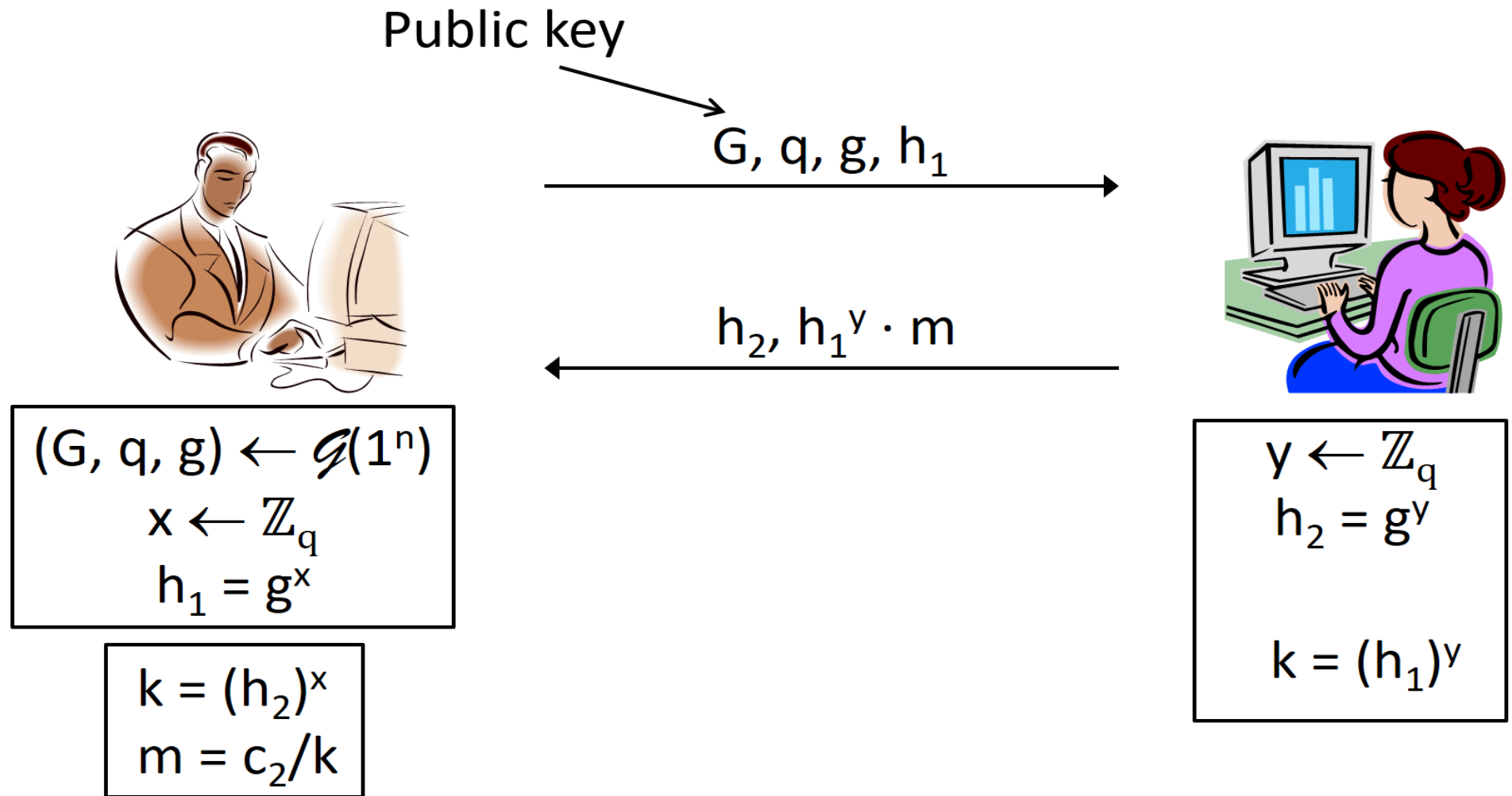


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- $Gen(1^n)$ 
  - Run  $\mathcal{G}(1^n)$  to obtain  $G, q, g$ . Choose **uniform**  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ .  
The *public key* is  $(G, q, g, g^x)$  and the *private key* is  $x$



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The **public key** is  $(G, q, g, g^x)$  and the **private key** is  $x$
- $Enc_{pk}(m)$ , where  $pk = (G, q, g, h)$  and  $m \in G$ 
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- $Dec_{sk}(c_1, c_2)$ 
  - Output  $c_2/c_1^x$



# Security

- If the *DDH assumption* is hard for  $\mathcal{G}$ , then the El Gamal encryption scheme is *CPA-secure*
  - Follows from security of Diffie-Hellman key exchange, or can be proved directly



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- *Dlog assumption* alone is **not** enough here



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we have  $c_1, c'_2 = g^y, h^y \cdot (\alpha m)$



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we have  $c_1, c'_2 = g^y, h^y \cdot (\alpha m)$
  - I.e., encryption of  $m$  becomes an encryption of  $\alpha m$ !



# Chosen-ciphertext attacks security

- Use *key derivation* coupled with *CCA-secure* private-key encryption scheme
  - I.e., ciphertext is
$$g^y, Enc'_k(m),$$
where  $k = H(h^y)$  and  $Enc'$  is a CCA-secure scheme
- Can be proved *CCA-secure* under appropriate assumptions, if  $H$  is modeled as a random oracle.



# CPA-secure public key encryption

- Constructing *CCA-secure* public key encryption is **more challenging** than the private key case.



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- **Construction 13.1:** Construct an encryption scheme as follows:
  - Let  $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  be a **random oracle** and  $\{(f, f^{-1})\}$  be a collection of **trapdoor permutations**. The public key of the scheme will be  $f(\cdot)$  while the private key is  $f^{-1}(\cdot)$ .
  - To **encrypt**  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , choose  $r \leftarrow_R \{0, 1\}^n$  and compute  $f(r), H(r) \oplus x$ .
  - To **decrypt**  $y, z$ , compute  $r = f^{-1}(y)$  and let  $x = H(r) \oplus z$ .



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- **Theorem 5.1** (**CPA security from PRFs**)

Suppose that  $F$  is a length-preserving, keyed **PRF**, then the following is a **CPA-secure encryption scheme**:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Enc}_k(m) &= \langle r, F_k(r) \oplus m \rangle \\ \text{Dec}_k(c_1, c_2) &= c_2 \oplus F_k(c_1) \end{aligned}$$



# CPA-secure public key encryption

- **Theorem 13.2** The above scheme is *CPA-secure* in the random oracle model.

**Proof.** For *public key* encryption, CPA security means that an adversary  $A$  that gets as input the encryption key  $f(\cdot)$  **cannot** distinguish  $Enc(x_1)$  and  $Enc(x_2)$  for **every**  $x_1, x_2$ , since encryption is public. In the random oracle model,  $A$  has access to the random oracle  $H(\cdot)$ .

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However, in this experiment, the only information  $A$  gets about  $r^*$  is  $f(r^*)$ . Thus, if it queries  $H(\cdot)$  the value  $r^*$ , then it inverted the *trapdoor permutation*, which is almost impossible!



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However,  $A$  gets *no* information about  $x^*$  and will *not* be able to guess if it is equal to  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  with probability greater than  $1/2$ .



# CCA Secure Public Key Encryption

- **Construction 13.3:** Construct an encryption scheme (using two independent random oracles) as follows:
- Let  $H, H' : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  be two independent random oracles and  $\{(f, f^{-1})\}$  be a collection of *trapdoor permutations*. The public key of the scheme will be  $f(\cdot)$  while the private key is  $f^{-1}(\cdot)$ .
  - To **encrypt**  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , choose  $r \leftarrow_R \{0, 1\}^n$  and compute  $f(r), H(r) \oplus x, H'(x, r)$ .
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**Proof.** Let  $A$  be the algorithm in a CCA attack against the scheme. Denote by  $y^*, z^*, w^*$  the challenge ciphertext  $A$  gets, where  $y^* = f(r^*)$ ,  $z^* = H(r^*) \oplus x^*$  and  $w^* = H'(x^*, r^*)$ .



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Since  $H$  is a random oracle, we can always assume that no one (the sender, receiver, or  $A$ ) can find two pairs  $x, r$  and  $x', r'$  such that  $x||r \neq x'||r'$ , but  $H'(x, r) = H'(x', r')$ .



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At each step  $i$  of the attack, for every string  $w \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , we define  $H_i'^{-1}(w)$  as: if the oracle  $H$  was queried before with  $x, r$  and returned  $w$ , then  $H_i'^{-1}(w) = (x, r)$ ; otherwise,  $H_i'^{-1}(w) = \perp$ .



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**Observation:** a pair  $x, r$  **completely determines** a ciphertext  $y, z, w$ , and  $y, z$  **completely determine**  $x, r$ .





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The *difference* between this oracle and the real decryption oracle is that we may answer  $\perp$  when the real one would give an actual answer. However, we claim that  $A$  will *not* be able to tell apart the difference with *non-negl.* probability.

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The only *difference* happens if  $A$  managed to ask the oracle a query  $y, z, w$  satisfying the following:

- $w \neq w^*$ .
- $w$  was not returned as the answer of any previous query  $x, r$  to  $H'(\cdot)$  by  $A$ .
- If we let  $x, r$  be the values determined by  $y, z$ , then  $H'(x, r) = w$ .  
However, since  $(x, r)$  was not asked before, the probability that

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Basically  $A$  has *no use* for the decryption box and hence it would be sufficient to prove that the scheme is just *CPA-secure*.

# Review

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- ◇ Foundations and principles of the science
- ◇ Basic primitives and components
- ◇ Definitions and proofs of security
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*multiple-message indistinguishable* (Def. 3.4)





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- $\text{PRG} \rightarrow \text{PRF} \rightarrow \text{PRP}$  (*block cipher*) (Def. 4.2, 4.3)



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# Review

- Rabin's trapdoor function, signature
- RSA trapdoor function, signature

# Next Lecture

- digital signature ...

