

CS Revision Lecture 9, 10

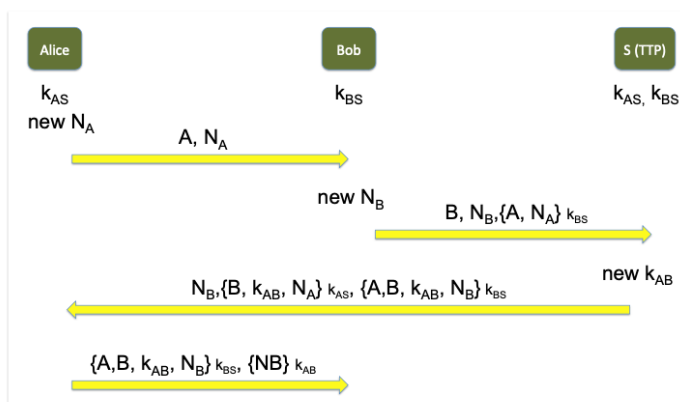
Lecture 9 - Cryptography: asymmetric encryption

Introduction

- So far: how two users can protect data using a shared secret key
 - One shared secret key per pair of users that want to communicate
- Our goal now: how to establish a shared secret key to begin with?
 - Trusted Third Party(TTP)
 - Diffie-Hellman (DH) protocol
 - RSA
 - ElGamal (EG)

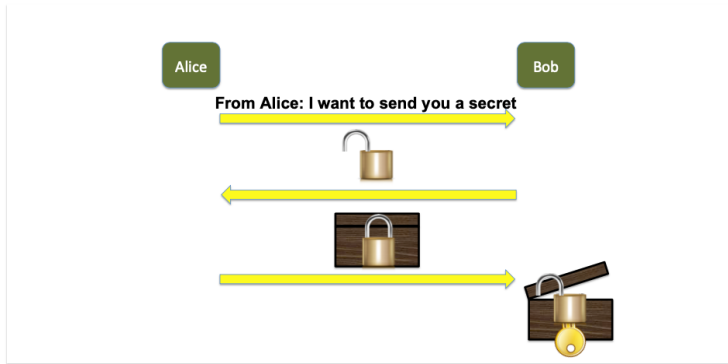
Online Trusted Third Party (TTP)

- Users $U_1, U_2, U_3, \dots, U_n, \dots$
- **Each user U_i has a shared secret key K_i with the TTP**
- **U_i and U_j can establish a key $K_{i,j}$ with the help of the TTP**
- **$\{m\}_k$ denotes the symmetric encryption of m under the key k**
- Example: using Paulson's variant of the Yahalom protocol



- Question: can we establish a shared secret key without a TTP?
- Answer: Yes! Using public key cryptography

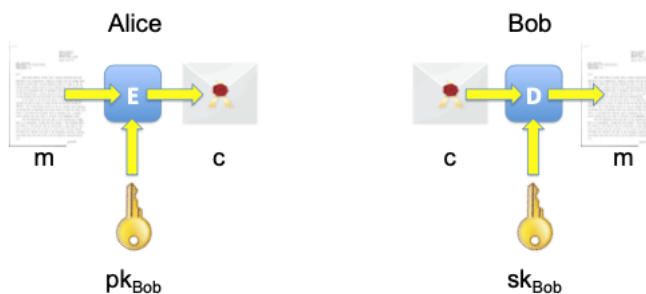
Goal of public-key encryption



- Alice put the secret inside the box
- Alice lock the box using Bob's padlock then send it to Bob
- Bob unlock the padlock using his key and read the secret

- **Public-key encryption - Definition**

- Key generation algorithm: $G : \rightarrow K \times K$
- Encryption algorithm $E : K \times M \rightarrow C$
- Decryption algorithm $D : K \times C \rightarrow M$
- st. $\forall (sk, pk) \in G$, and $\forall m \in M$, $D(sk, E(pk, m)) = m$



- **The decryption key sk_{Bob} is secret (only known to Bob).**
The encryption key pk_{Bob} is known to everyone. And $sk_{Bob} \neq pk_{Bob}$

- **Primes**

- **Definition**
 - $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is a **prime** if its only divisors are 1 and p
 - Ex: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29
- **Theorem**

- Every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ has a **unique factorization** as a product of prime numbers (which are called its factors)
- Ex: $23244 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 13 \times 149$

Relative primes

Definition

- a and b in \mathbb{Z} are **relative primes** if they have no common factors

Euler function

- The Euler function $\phi(n)$ is the **number of elements** that are relative primes with n :
 - $\phi(n) = |\{m | 0 < m < n \text{ and } \gcd(m, n) = 1\}|$
 - For p prime: $\phi(p) = p - 1$
 - **For p and q primes: $\phi(p \cdot q) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$**

\mathbb{Z}_n

- Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We define $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, \dots, n - 1\}$
 - $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, \forall b \in \mathbb{Z}_n, a \equiv b \pmod{n} \iff \exists k \in \mathbb{N}. a = b + k \cdot n$
- **Modular inversion:**
 - the inverse of $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ is $y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ s.t. $x \cdot y \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. We denote x^{-1} the inverse of $x \pmod{n}$
 - Example:
 - $7^{-1} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{12} : 7$ $7 * 7 = 49 \pmod{12} = 1$
 - $4^{-1} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{12} : 4$ has no inverse in \mathbb{Z}_{12}
- **Theorem**
 - Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. x has a inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n , iff $\gcd(x, n) = 1$

\mathbb{Z}_n^*

- Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We define $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n | \gcd(x, n) = 1\}$
 - Example: $\mathbb{Z}_{12}^* = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$
- Note that $|\mathbb{Z}_n^*| = \phi(n)$
Number of prime numbers

- Theorem (Euler)

- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, if $\gcd(x, n) = 1$ then $x^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

- Ex:

- $11^{12} \pmod{12} = 1$

- $7^{12} \pmod{12} = 1$

- $5^{12} \pmod{12} = 1$

- $1^{12} \pmod{12} = 1$

- $\forall p$ prime, \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a cyclic group, i.e.

- $\exists g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-2}\} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$

- Ex:

- $p = 7, \mathbb{Z}_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

- $g = 3, \text{ s.t. } \mathbb{Z}_7^* = \{1, 3 \pmod{7}, 3^2 \pmod{7}, 3^3 \pmod{7}, 3^4 \pmod{7}, 3^5 \pmod{7}\} = 1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5$

- Intractable problem

- Factoring:

- input: $n \in \mathbb{N}$

- output: p_1, \dots, p_m primes s.t. $n = p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_m$

- RSAP

- input

- n st. $n = p \cdot q$ with $2 \leq p, q$ primes

- e st. $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$

- $m^e \pmod{n}$

- output:

- m

- Discrete Log:

- Input: prime p , generator g of \mathbb{Z}_p^* , $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$

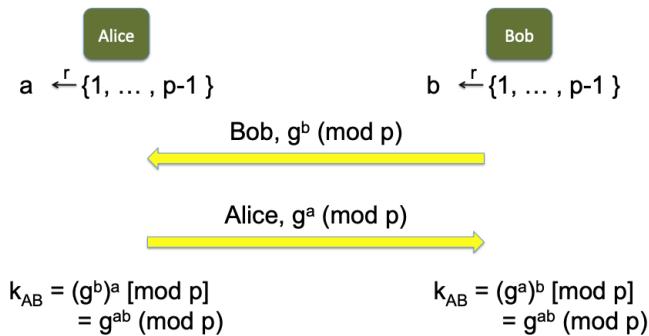
- Output: x such that $y = g^x \pmod{p}$

- DHP (Diffie-Hellman problem)

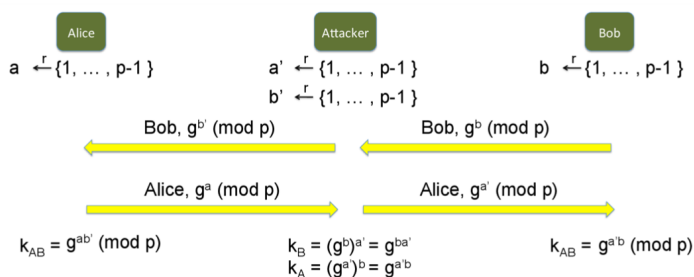
- Input: prime p , generator g of \mathbb{Z}_p^* , $g^a \pmod{p}$, $g^b \pmod{p}$
- Output: $g^{ab} \pmod{p}$

The Diffie-Hellman (DH) Protocol

- **Assumption: the DHP is hard in \mathbb{Z}_p^***
- Fix a very large prime p , and $g \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$



- It is hard to know $g^{ab} \pmod{p}$ because of DHP
- **Man-in-the-middle attack**



- Attacker create number a' and b' .
- Send them to Alice and Bob. Create keys that attacker knows

RSA trapdoor permutation

- $G_{RSA}() = (pk, sk)$
 - Where $pk = (N, e)$ and $sk = (N, d)$
 - $N = p \cdot q$ with p, q random primes
 - $e, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ st. $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \phi(N) \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$
- $M = C = \mathbb{Z}_N$

- $RSA(pk, x) = x^e \pmod N$
- $RSA^{-1}(sk, x) = x^d \pmod N$
- Consistency:
 - $\forall(pk, sk) = G_{RSA}(), \forall x, RSA^{-1}(sk, RSA(pk, x)) = x$
 - Proof:
 - Let $pk = (N, e), sk = (N, d)$ and $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$. Easy case where x and N are relatively prime

$$\begin{aligned}
 RSA^{-1}(sk, RSA(pk, x)) &= (x^e)^d \pmod N \\
 &= x^{e \cdot d} \pmod N \\
 &= x^{1+k\phi(N)} \pmod N \\
 &= x \cdot x^{k\phi(N)} \pmod N \\
 &= x \cdot (x^{\phi(N)})^k \pmod N \\
 &\stackrel{\text{Euler}}{=} x \pmod N
 \end{aligned}$$

- How Does it work
 - choose two large prime numbers p and q
 - $N = p \cdot q$
 - $\phi(N) = (p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)$ Euler function
 - Choose e (encryption key)
 - $1 < e < \phi(N)$
 - e coprime with $N, \phi(N)$
 - e is public
 - Choose d (decryption key)
 - $e \cdot d \pmod{\phi(N)} = 1$
 - d is private

How NOT to use RSA

- (G_{RSA}, RSA, RSA^{-1}) is called raw RSA. Do not use raw RSA directly as an asymmetric cipher
 - **RSA is deterministic \implies not secure against chosen plaintext attacks**
 - No randomness at all

ISO Standard

Goal:

- Build a CPA secure asymmetric cipher using (G_{RSA}, RSA, RSA^{-1})
- Let (E_s, D_s) be a symmetric encryption scheme over (M, C, K)
- Let $H : \mathbb{Z}_N^* \rightarrow K$

Hash function produce the Key

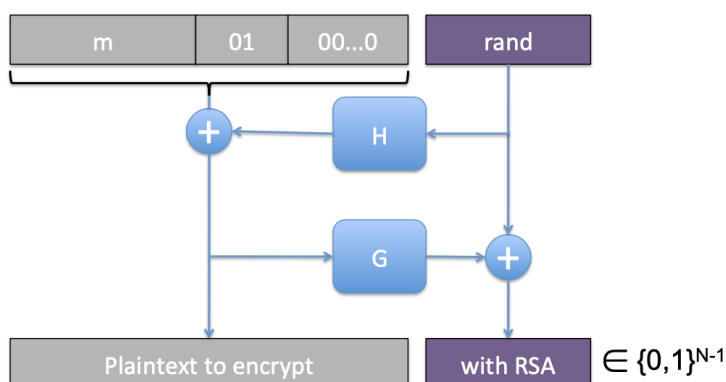
Build $(G_{RSA}, E_{RSA}, D_{RSA})$ as follows

- G_{RSA} as described above
- $E_{RSA}(pk, m)$:
 - pick random $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
 - $y \leftarrow RSA(pk, x) (= x^e \bmod N)$
Encrypt x produce y
 - $k \leftarrow H(x)$
produce key by putting x into the hash function
 - $E_{RSA}(pk, m) = y || E_s(k, m)$
- $D_{RSA}(sk, y || c) = D_s(H(RSA^{-1}(sk, y)), c)$

First recover the x, then decrypt the ciphertext

PKCS1 v2.0: RSA-OAEP

- Goal: build a CCA (chosen ciphertext attacks) secure asymmetric cipher using (G_{RSA}, RSA, RSA^{-1})



ElGamal (EG)

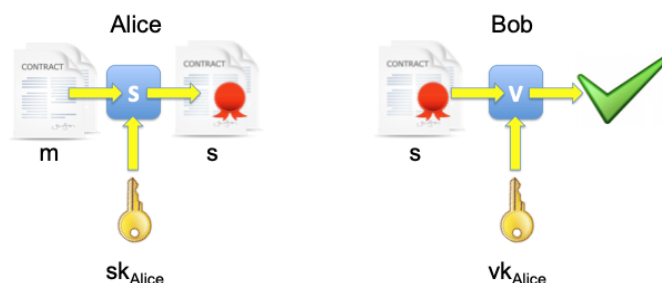
- Fix prime p , and generator $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$
- $M = \{0, \dots, p-1\}$ and $C = M \times M$
- $G_{EG}() = (pk, sk)$
 - $pk = g^d \pmod{p}$
 - $sk = d$ and $d \xleftarrow{r} \{1, \dots, p-2\}$
- $E_{EG}(pk, x) = (g^r \pmod{p}, m \cdot (g^d)^r \pmod{p})$
 - $r \xleftarrow{r} \mathbb{Z}$
- $D_{EG}(sk, x) = e^{-d} \cdot c \pmod{p}$
 - $x = (e, c)$
- Consistency:
 - $\forall(pk, sk) = G_{EG}(), \forall x, D_{EG}(sk, E_{EG}(pk, x)) = x$
 - Proof:
 - Let $pk = g^d \pmod{p}$ and $sk = d$

$$\begin{aligned} D_{EG}(sk, E_{EG}(pk, x)) &= (g^r)^{-d} \cdot m \cdot (g^d)^r \pmod{p} \\ &= m \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

Lecture 10 - Cryptography: digital signatures

Goal

- Data integrity and origin authenticity in the public-key setting

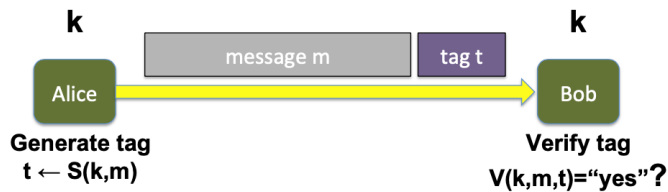


- Key generation algorithm: $G : \rightarrow K \times K$
- signing algorithm $S : K \times M \rightarrow S$

- Verification algorithm $V : K \times M \times S \rightarrow \{\top, \perp\}$
- s.t. $\forall (sk, vk) \in G$, and $\forall m \in M$, $V(vk, m, S(sk, m)) = \top$

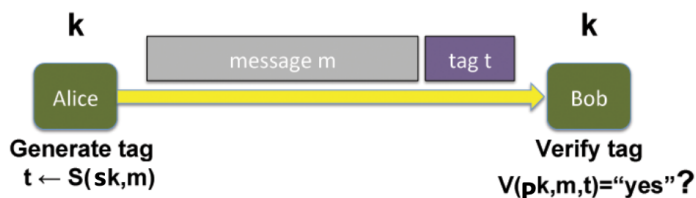
Advantages of digital signatures over MACs

MACs



- **are not publicly verifiable (and so not transferable)**
 - No one else, except Bob, can verify t .
- **do not provide non-repudiation**
 - t is not bound to Alice's identity only. Alice could later claim she didn't compute t herself. It could very well have been Bob since he also knows the key k

Digital signatures



- are **publicly verifiable** - anyone can verify a signature
- are **transferable** - due to public verifiability
- provide **non-repudiation** - if Alice signs a document with her secret key, she cannot deny it later

Security

- A good digital signature schemes should satisfy existential unforgeability.
- **What is Existential unforgeability**
 - Given $(m_1, S(sk, m_1)), \dots, (m_n, S(sk, m_n))$ (where m_1, \dots, m_n chosen by the adversary)

- It should be hard to compute a valid pair $(m, S(sk, m))$ without knowing sk for any $m \notin \{m_1, \dots, m_n\}$

Textbook RSA signatures

- $G_{RSA}() = (pk, sk)$
 - Where $pk = (N, e)$ and $sk = (N, d)$
 - $N = p \cdot q$ with p, q random primes
 - $e, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ st. $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \phi(N) \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$
- $M = C = \mathbb{Z}_N$
- Signing: $S_{RSA}(sk, x) = (x, x^d \pmod{N})$
- Verifying $V_{RSA}(pk, m, x) =$
 - \top if $m = x^e \pmod{N}$
 - \perp otherwise
- s.t. $\forall (pk, sk) = G_{RSA}(), \forall x, V_{RSA}(pk, x, S_{RSA}(sk, x)) = \top$
- Proof: exactly as proof of consistency of RSA encryption/decryption

Problems with "Textbook RSA signatures"

- **Textbook RSA signatures are not secure**
 - The "textbook RSA signature" scheme does not provide **existential unforgeability**
 - Suppose Eve has two valid signatures $\sigma_1 = M_1^d \pmod{n}$ and $\sigma_2 = M_2^d \pmod{n}$ from Bob, on messages M_1 and M_2 .
 - Then Eve can exploit the homomorphic properties of RSA and produce a new signature
 - $\sigma = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 \pmod{n} = M_1^d \cdot M_2^d \pmod{n} = (M_1 \cdot M_2)^d \pmod{n}$

- which is a valid signature from Bob on message M_1 · M_2

• How to use RSA for signatures

• **Solution**

- Before computing the RSA function, apply a hash function H
- Signing: $S_{RSA}(sk, x) = (x, H(x)^d \pmod N)$
- Verifying: $V_{RSA}(pk, m, x) =$
 - \top if $H(M) = x^e \pmod N$
 - \perp otherwise

以上内容整理于 [幕布文档](#)