

Cryptography

Corso di Laurea Magistrale in Informatica

The Public-Key Revolution

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Limitations of Private-Key Cryptography

- ▶ Although symmetric (or private-key) cryptography can solve the authentication and confidentiality problems, it has some fundamental limitations.

1. Key Distribution

- ▶ In private-key cryptography, a key must be shared between the sender and the receiver.
- ▶ Certainly, a non secure channel cannot be used, and exchanging the key “manually” is only realistic for certain mission-critical applications

2. Key Storage

- ▶ If the number of involved users is equal to U , the number of needed keys is $\Theta(U^2)$ and the entry of a new user requires $U - 1$ new keys.
- ▶ This is a problem when U increases.

3. Managing Open Systems

- ▶ In open systems, where new users can connect to the system dynamically, symmetric cryptography offers no solution.

A Partial Solution: KDC

- ▶ A quite simple way to solve the first two problems above is to provide the (multi-party) system with a **key distribution centre** (KDC), where:
 - ▶ All users share a secret key with the KDC.
 - ▶ Whenever a user A wants to communicate with a user B , A sends a special message to the KDC requiring a special session-key.
 - ▶ Then, the KDC sends both A and B a new key, which is deleted at the end of the communication session.

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- ▶ The *advantages* of this approach are:
 - ▶ Each user needs to store only one key (i.e. the one shared with the KDC), and the session keys.
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 - ▶ When a new user joins, it is enough to bother the KDC, and not all the other users.
- ▶ However, there are still some *disadvantages*:
 - ▶ Forcing the KDC means forcing the whole system.
 - ▶ If the KDC is a **point-of-failure**.

A Partial Solution: KDC

- ▶ How are session keys distributed?
- ▶ There are many protocols for key distribution through KDC.
- ▶ One of these is a protocol due to Needham and Schroeder (also known as the NS protocol):

A Send (A, B) to KDC
 KDC $k \leftarrow Gen$
 Send $(Enc(k_A, k), Enc(k_B, k))$ to A
 A Send $Enc(k_B, k)$ to B

- ▶ The NS protocol is, however, vulnerable to attacks on the authentication side, if a CPA-secure encryption scheme is used.
- ▶ NS is the basis of the Kerberos protocol.

The Public-Key Revolution

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 - ▶ An **encryption key**, used by the sender.
 - ▶ A **decryption key**, used by the receiver.
- ▶ Surprisingly, the security of the encryption scheme must also hold against adversaries who know the encryption key, which is also called **public key**.
 - ▶ In this way, a secure channel for keys distribution is no longer required: the sender makes the encryption key *public*.

The Public-Key Revolution

- ▶ The three limitations of symmetric encryption are solved as follows:
 1. Key distribution can be *on public channels*, even if authenticated.
 2. Each of the parties involved in the communication must keep secret *a single* key.
 3. Open systems are handled in a satisfactory way: each new user *creates a public key* and makes it available to other users.

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- ▶ Diffie and Hellman proposed three public key primitives:
 - ▶ **Public-Key Cryptography**, which we discussed.
 - ▶ **The digital signature**, or the asymmetric equivalent of MACs.
 - ▶ **An interactive key-exchange protocol**, through which two parties that do not share any secret information can generate a key securely.

Key-Exchange Protocols

- ▶ A *key-exchange protocol* is a set of rules Π that specifies how two parties A and B should exchange a certain number of messages.
 - ▶ At the end of the protocol A constructed a key k_A , while B has constructed k_B .
 - ▶ The protocol is **correct** if $k_A = k_B$.
- ▶ The security of a protocol for key exchange is usually formulated, as usual, through an experiment:

$\text{KE}_{A,\Pi}^{eav}(n)$:

$(\text{transcript}, k) \leftarrow \Pi(1^n)$;

$b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$;

if $b = 0$ **then**

$k^* \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$

else

$k^* \leftarrow k$

$b^* \leftarrow A(\text{transcript}, k^*)$;

Result: $\neg(b \oplus b^*)$

Π is *secure* iff for every PPT A exists $\varepsilon \in \mathcal{NGL}$ s.t. $\Pr(\text{KE}_{A,\Pi}^{eav}(n) = 1) = \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$.

The Diffie-Hellman Protocol

- ▶ Diffie-Hellman protocol is built on principles similar to those that led the two researchers to formulate the assumptions that are named after them.
- ▶ The protocol is defined as follows:

$(\mathbb{G}, q, g) \leftarrow \text{GenCG}(1^n)$

A $x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
 $h_1 \leftarrow g^x$
 Send (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h_1) **to** B

$y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$
 $h_2 \leftarrow g^y$

B **Send** h_2 **to** B
 Output h_1^y

A **Output** h_2^x

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A	$x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$	
	$h_1 \leftarrow g^x$	
	Send (\mathbb{G}, q, g, h_1) to B	$k_B = h_1^y = (g^x)^y = g^{xy}$
	$y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$	
	$h_2 \leftarrow g^y$	$k_A = h_2^x = (g^y)^x = g^{xy}$
B	Send h_2 to A	
	Output h_1^y	
A	Output h_2^x	

On Diffie-Hellman Protocol's Security

Theorem

If DDH is difficult relative to GenCG , then Π is secure (with respect to KE^{eav}).

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- ▶ We note that the DDH Assumption was formulated **after** the introduction of the aforementioned protocol and **exactly** in order to understand which property was sufficient for the relative security.
 - ▶ What do we obtain? We have identified a property, that can be then related to the discrete logarithm.

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 - ▶ What do we obtain? We have identified a property, that can be then related to the discrete logarithm.
- ▶ In addition to the “passive” attacks we have considered so far, there are others, which the experiment KE^{eav} does not catch:
 - ▶ **Impersonation Attacks**
 - ▶ **Man-in-the-Middle Attacks**, against which Diffie-Hellman is known to be not secure.