



Cryptology

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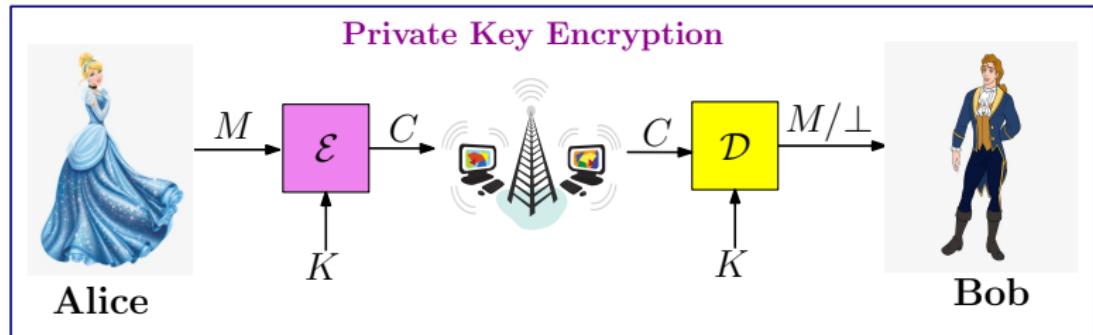


Lecture 11

Public Key Cryptography and Key Exchange Protocol

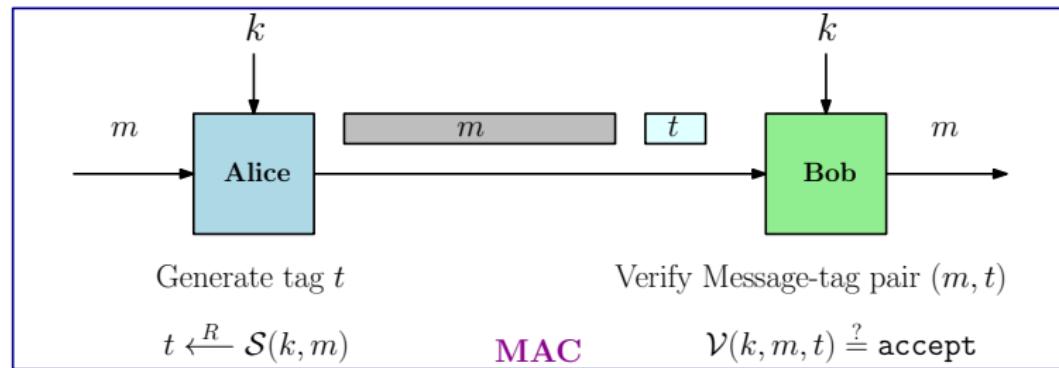
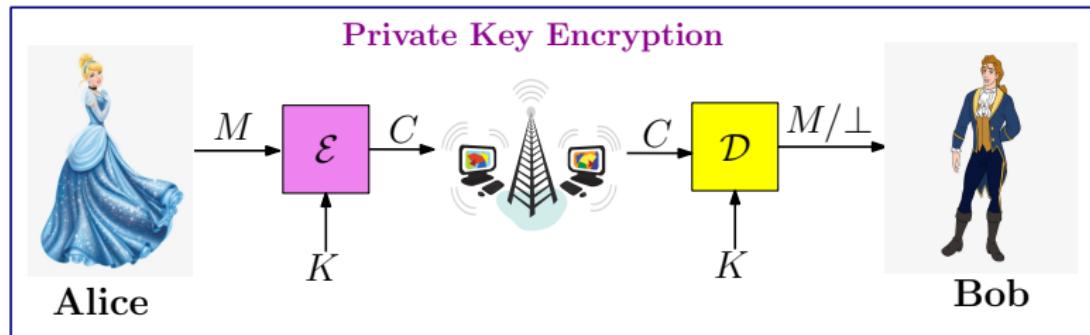


Introduction



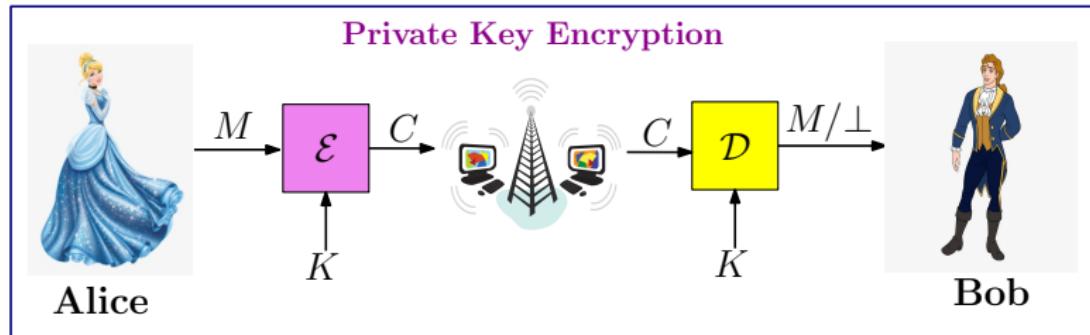


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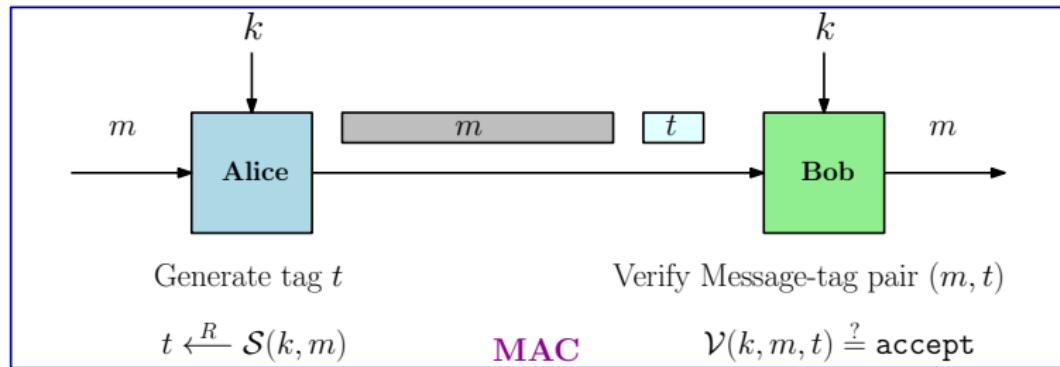




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How to setup the shared Key?





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 - Two parties **physically meet**.



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 - For average persons, this may cause **severe travel cost**.



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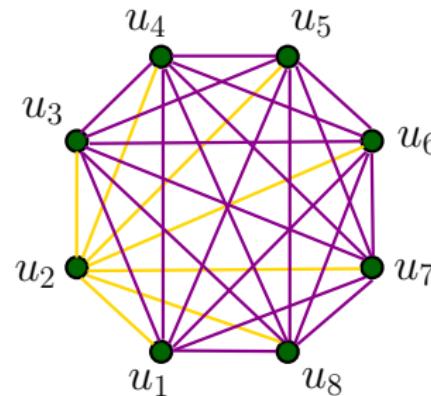
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 - Computer systems are **often infected** by viruses, worms, and other forms of malicious software.



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2. Managing so many secret keys, and
3. Inapplicability of private-key cryptography in open systems



Key distribution centers: A Partial Solution

Key distribution centers

1. Requires a trusted third party, like IT manager.



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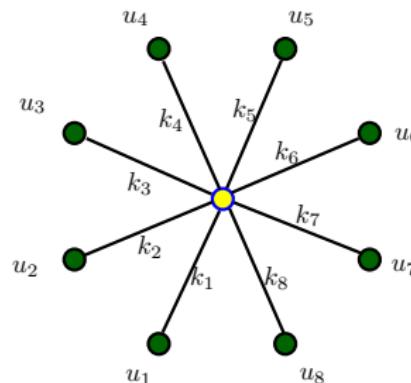
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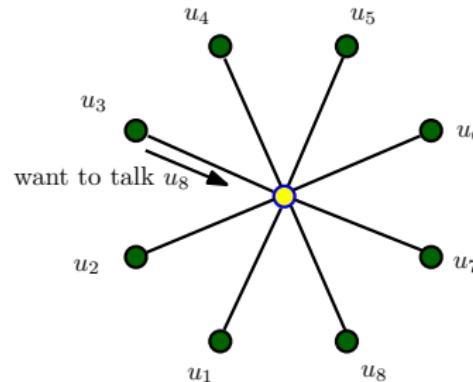
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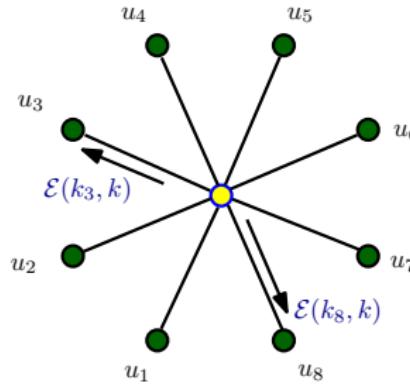


Key distribution centers

1. u_3 sends a request to KDC: want to talk to u_8



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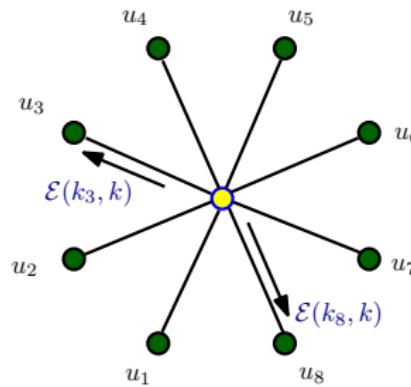


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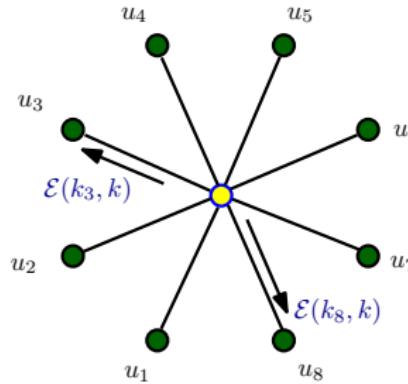


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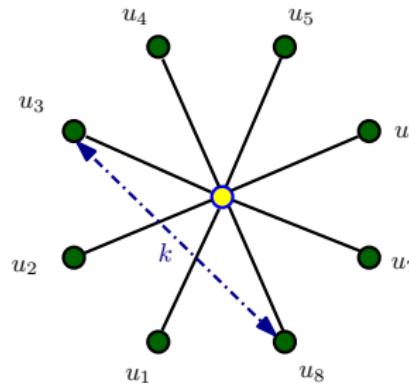


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1. u_3 and u_8 will use k as shared key.
2. Must delete the key k after use.



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 - A successful attack on the KDC will result in a **complete break** of the system for all parties.
 - The KDC is a **single point of failure**.



New Directions in Cryptography (1976): Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman

First two paragraphs of the paper

We stand today on the brink of a revolution in cryptography. The development of cheap digital hardware has freed it from the design limitations of mechanical computing and brought the cost of high grade cryptographic devices down to where they can be used in such commercial applications as remote cash dispensers and computer terminals.

In turn, such applications create a need for new types of cryptographic systems which minimize the necessity of secure key distribution channels and supply the equivalent of a written signature. At the same time, theoretical developments in information theory and computer science show promise of providing provably secure cryptosystems, changing this ancient art into a science.



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- Introduces three distinct public-key primitives:
 - Interactive Key Exchange.
 - Public Key Encryption.
 - Digital Signatures.



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- Formally, the transcript T_P of protocol P is a random variable, which is a function of the random bits generated by A and B .



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 - it must be computationally hard to guess d from e .



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- $\{G, g, n, m\}$ are public elements.



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Generates a random $d_A \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_A = g^{d_A}$



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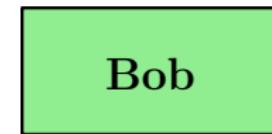
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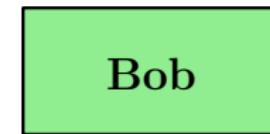
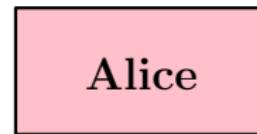
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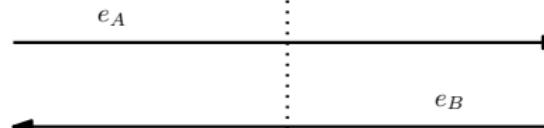


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Failure

If $k = 1$, then we have a **Failure**.



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We define \mathcal{A} 's advantage in solving the discrete logarithm problem for G , denoted $\text{DLadv}[\mathcal{A}, G]$, as the probability that $x = \hat{x}$.



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We define \mathcal{A} 's advantage in solving the discrete logarithm problem for G , denoted $\text{DLadv}[\mathcal{A}, G]$, as the probability that $x = \hat{x}$.

Discrete logarithm assumption

We say that the discrete logarithm (DL) assumption holds for G if for all efficient adversaries \mathcal{A} the quantity $\text{DLadv}[\mathcal{A}, G]$ is negligible.



Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)

Some Properties of Discrete Logarithm

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DLP and Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol

- If DLP is easy to solve in a group G , then
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- Hardness of DLP is the necessary condition for DH key Exchange, but not sufficient.



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Let G be a finite cyclic group of order n and g be a generator. Given (G, g, n) , and g^x and g^y for some (unknown) integers x and y , compute g^{xy} .



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DHKE and CDHP

$$\text{KEadv}_c[\mathcal{A}, \text{DHKE}] = \text{CDHadv}[\mathcal{A}, G].$$



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For $b = 0, 1$, let W_b be the event that \mathcal{A} outputs 1 in Experiment b . We define the advantage of \mathcal{A} in the DDH attack with respect to G as

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DHKE and DDHP

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$$\text{KEadv}_i[\mathcal{A}, \text{DHKE}] = \left| \Pr[W] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \leq \text{DDHadv}[\mathcal{A}, G].$$



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- A final reason for working with prime-order groups applies in situations when the DDHP should be hard.
 - We stress that using a group of prime order is neither necessary nor sufficient for the DDH problem to be hard.



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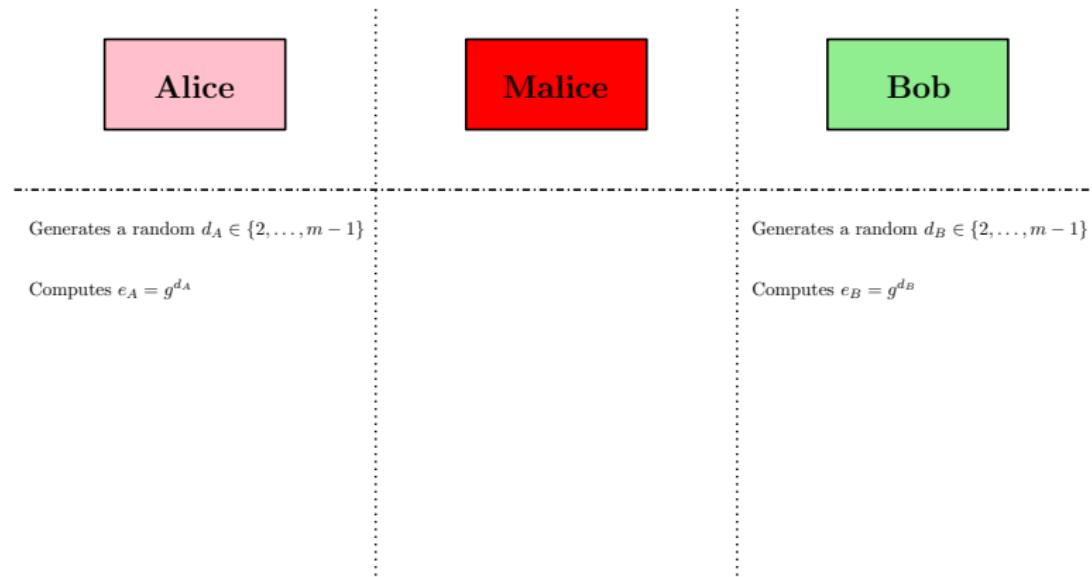


Small Subgroup Attack

- Let $\{G, g, n, m\}$ are public elements,
- Let $h = \frac{n}{m}$ and
- $g' \in G$ has order h .

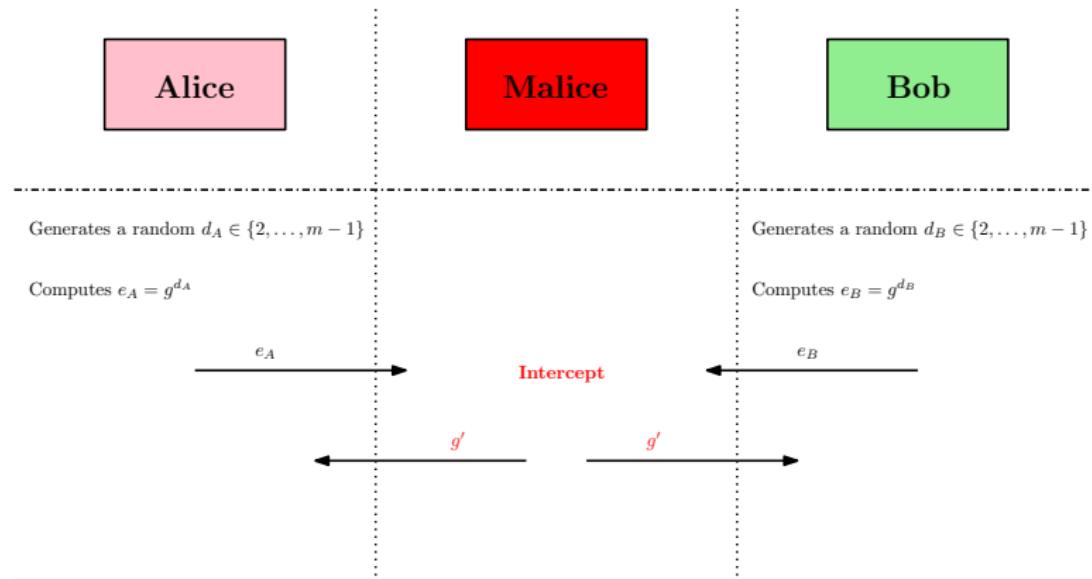


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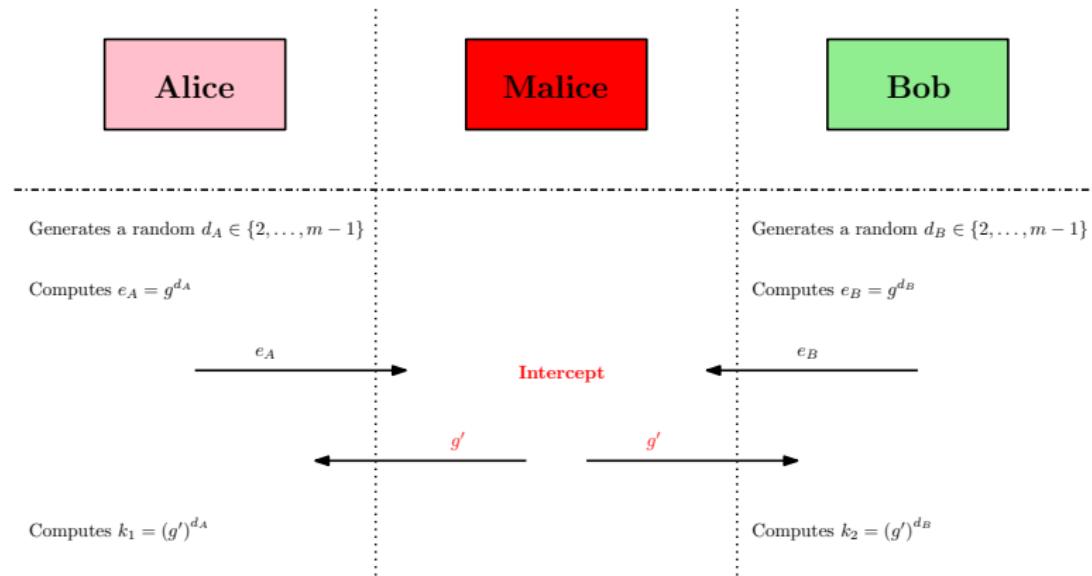


Small Subgroup Attack





Small Subgroup Attack





Small Subgroup Attack

If $d_A \equiv d_B \equiv d \pmod{h}$

- Let $d_A = q_A h + d$ and $d_B = q_B h + d$

$$(g')^{d_A} = (g')^{q_A h + d} = (g'^h)^{q_A} (g')^d = 1 \cdot (g')^d = (g')^d$$

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- As h is small, Malice can find d by exhaustive search.



Small Subgroup Attack

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- As h is small, Malice can find d by exhaustive search.

If $d_A \not\equiv d_B \pmod{h}$

- Let $d_A = q_A h + d_1$ and $d_B = q_B h + d_2$

$$(g')^{d_A} = (g')^{q_A h + d_1} = (g'^h)^{q_A} (g')^{d_1} = 1 \cdot (g')^{d_1} = (g')^{d_1}$$

$$(g')^{d_B} = (g')^{q_B h + d_2} = (g'^h)^{q_B} (g')^{d_2} = 1 \cdot (g')^{d_2} = (g')^{d_2}$$

- As h is small, Malice can find d_1 and d_2 by exhaustive search.



Small Subgroup Attack resistant DH Protocol

Alice

Bob

Generates a random $d_A \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

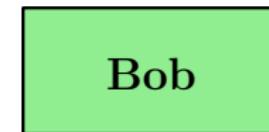
Computes $e_A = g^{d_A}$

Generates a random $d_B \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_B = g^{d_B}$



Small Subgroup Attack resistant DH Protocol



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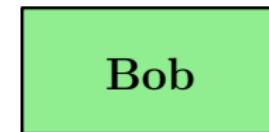
Computes $e_B = g^{d_B}$

e_A

e_B



Small Subgroup Attack resistant DH Protocol

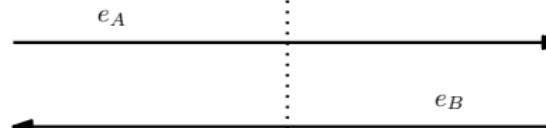


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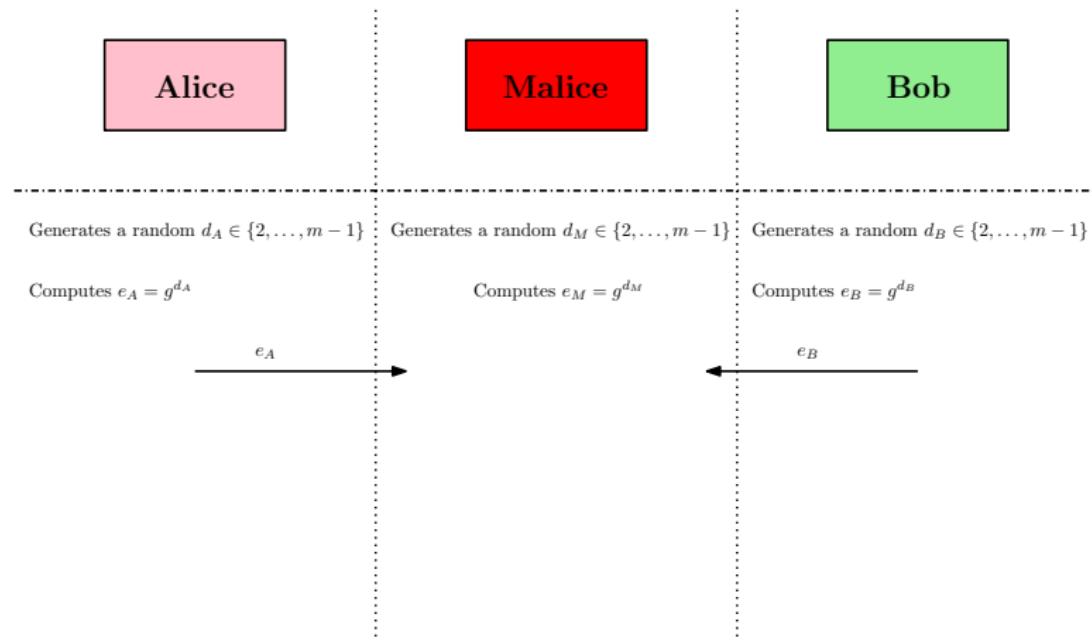


Computes $k = (e_B)^{hd_A}$

Computes $k = (e_A)^{hd_B}$

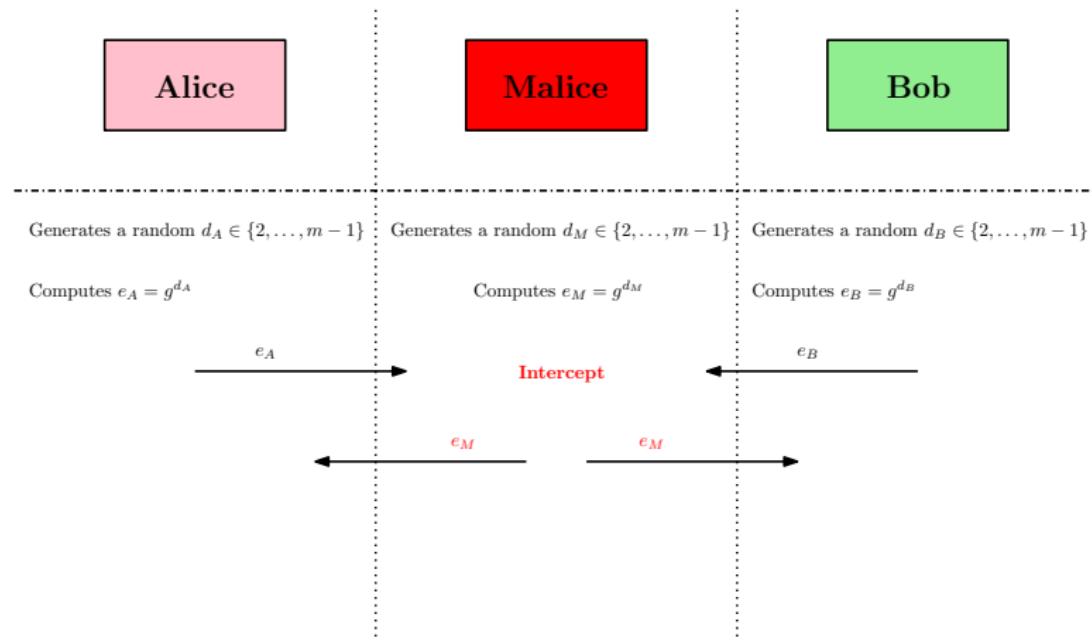


Unknown Key Share



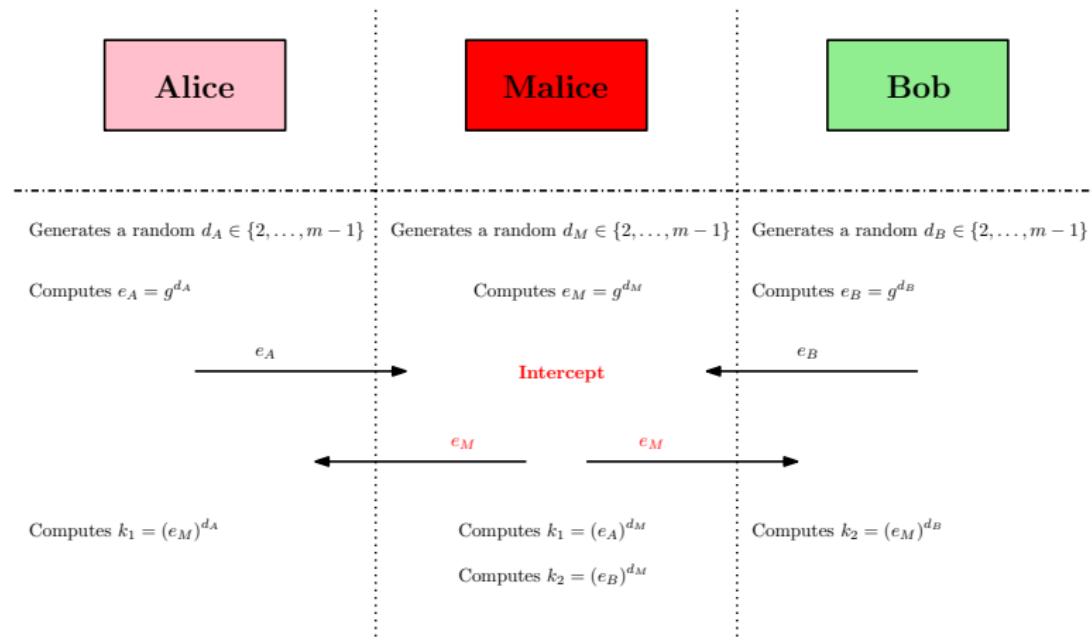


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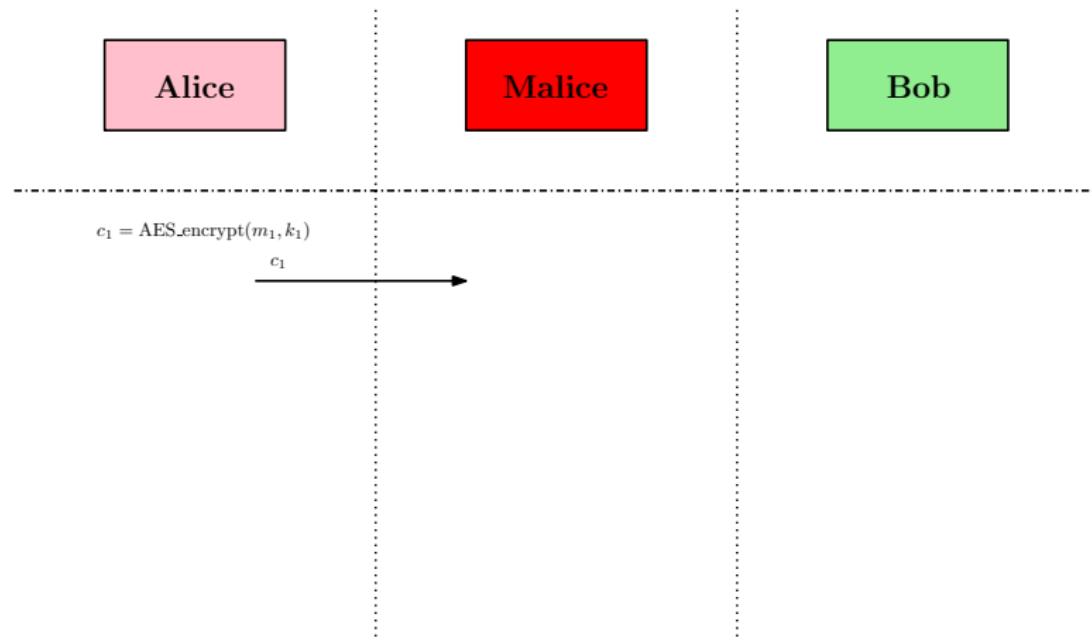


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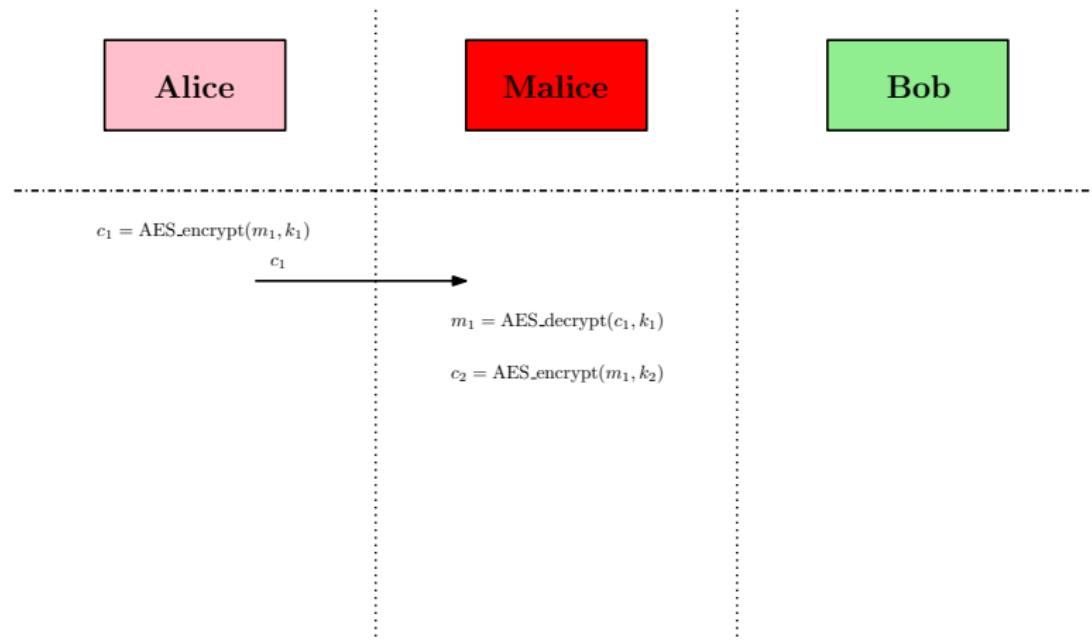


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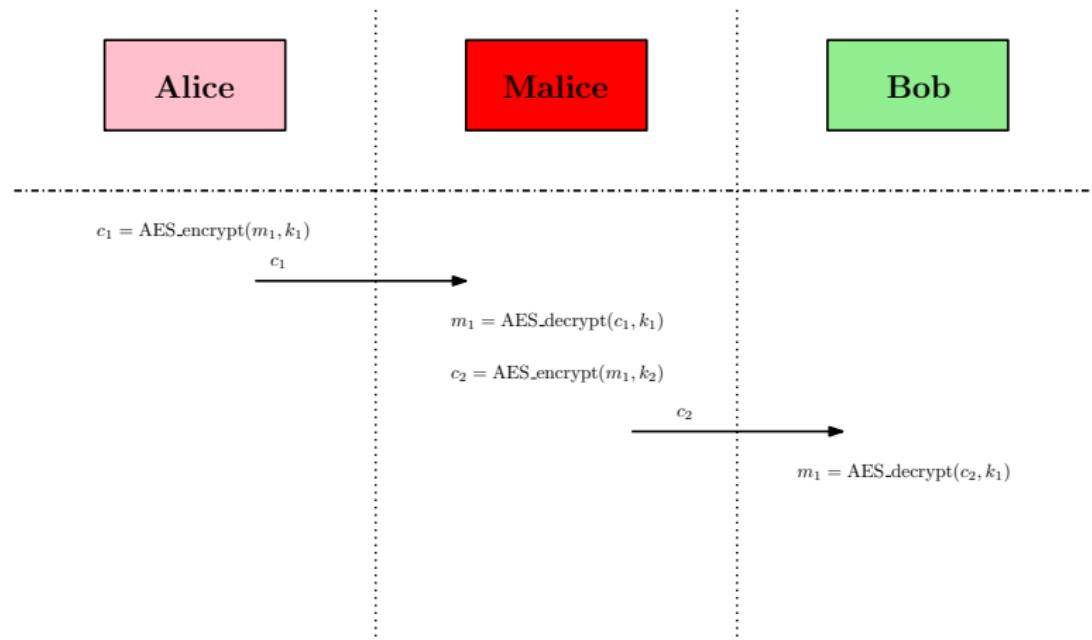


Unknown Key Share





Unknown Key Share





The Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (MQV) key-exchange protocol

- Let $\{G, g, n, m, h\}$ are **public** elements,



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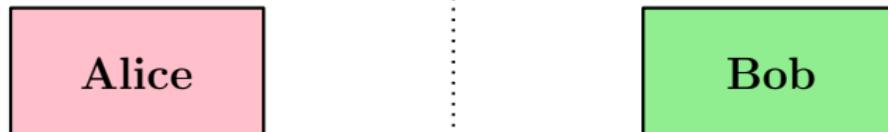
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- Static key of an entity is assumed to be authentic, say, certified by a trusted authority.
- A new ephemeral key pair during each invocation of the protocol.
- The ephemeral key is validated using the static private key.
- l : bit-length of m .
- Publicly known function: $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_0$ such that for $a \in G$

$$\hat{a} = 2^{\lceil l/2 \rceil} + f(a) \text{ rem } 2^{\lceil l/2 \rceil}.$$

In particular, $\hat{a} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{m}$.



The Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (MQV) key-exchange protocol

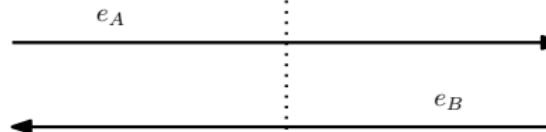


Generates a random $d_A \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_A = g^{d_A}$

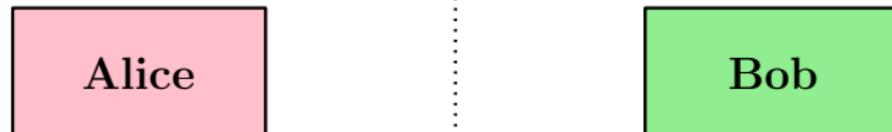
Generates a random $d_B \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_B = g^{d_B}$





The Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (MQV) key-exchange protocol



Alice

Bob

Generates a random $d_A \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_A = g^{d_A}$

Generates a random $d_B \in \{2, \dots, m - 1\}$

Computes $e_B = g^{d_B}$

e_A



e_B



Computes $\sigma_A = d_A + \hat{e}_A D_A$

Computes $k = \left(e_B E_B^{\hat{e}_B} \right)^{h\sigma_A}$

Computes $\sigma_B = d_B + \hat{e}_B D_B$

Computes $k = \left(e_A E_A^{\hat{e}_A} \right)^{h\sigma_B}$



The Menezes-Qu-Vanstone (MQV) key-exchange protocol

Correctness of MQV

$$\left(e_B E_B^{\hat{e}_B} \right)^{h\sigma_A} = \left(g^{d_B} \left(g^{D_B} \right)^{\hat{e}_B} \right)^{h\sigma_A}$$



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End