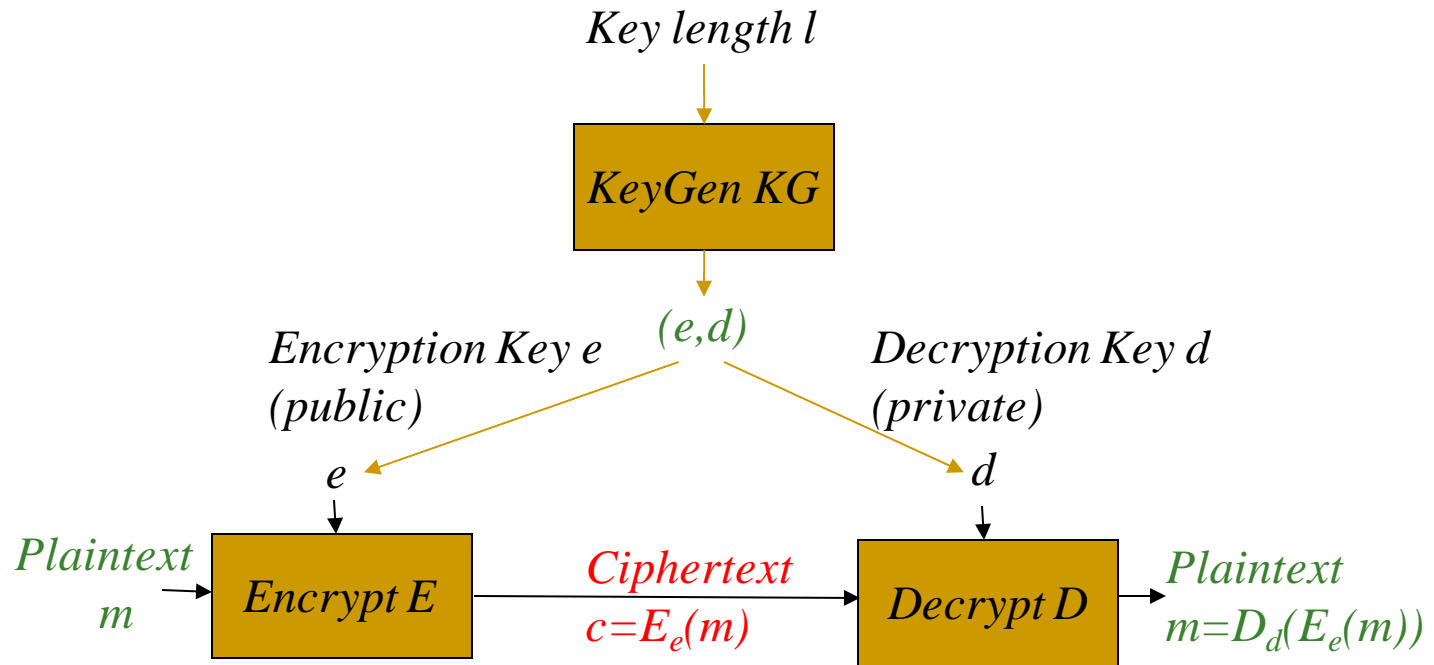


# Public Key Cryptology, Part II: Public key cryptosystems and signature schemes

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# Public Key Cryptosystem



# Using DH: for Encryption?

- Can we turn DH into... encryption?
- Bob **publishes**  $g^b$  as its public key
- Alice uses it (directly!) to encrypt messages for Bob
  - No interaction
- Let's see it gradually...

# Turning [DH] to Public Key Cryptosystem

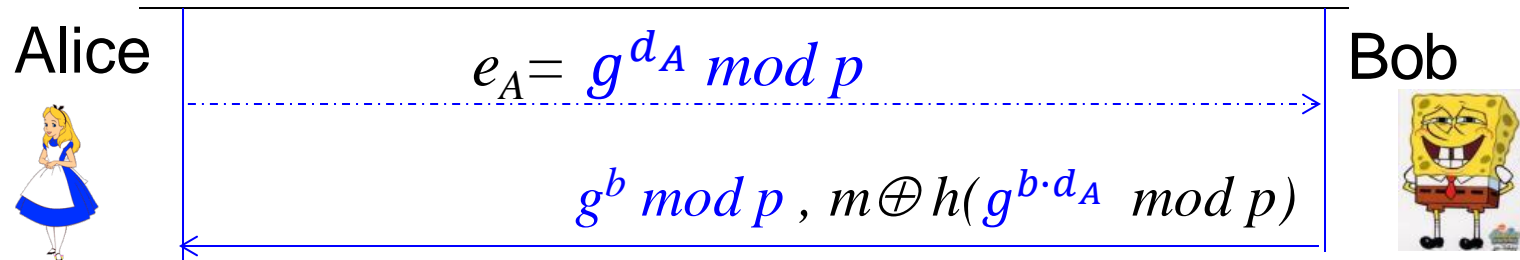
- Select random prime  $p$  and generator  $g$
- Alice: secret key  $a$ , public key  $P_A = g^a \bmod p$
- Bob: secret key  $b$ , public key  $P_B = g^b \bmod p$

# Turning [DH] to Public Key Cryptosystem

- Select random prime  $p$  and generator  $g$
- Alice: secret key  $d_A$  public key  $P_A = g^{d_A} \bmod p$
- ~~Bob: secret key  $b$ , public key  $P_B = g^b \bmod p$~~   
(Bob will encrypt – does not have keys)

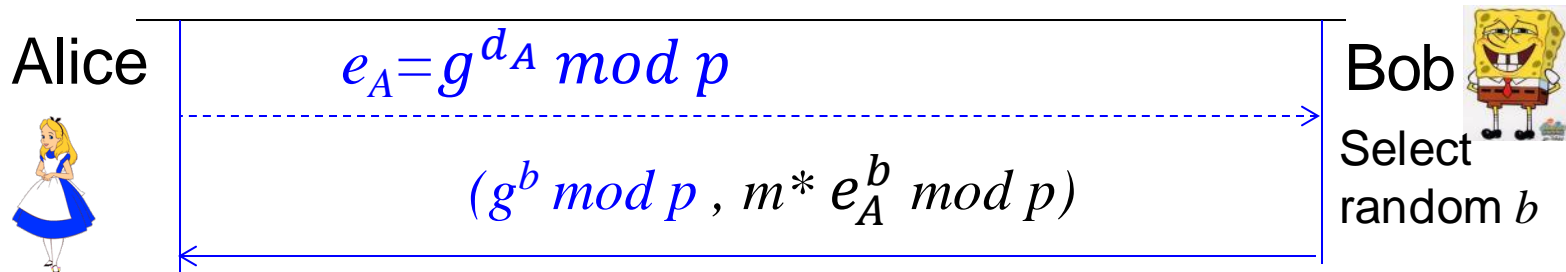
# Turning [DH] to Public Key Cryptosystem

- Select random prime  $p$  and generator  $g$
- Alice: secret key  $d_A$ , public key  $e_A = g^{d_A} \bmod p$
- ~~Bob: secret key  $b$ , public key  $P_B = g^b \bmod p$~~
- To encrypt message  $m$  to Alice:
  - Bob selects random  $b$
  - Sends:  $g^b \bmod p$ ,  $m \oplus h((e_A)^b) = m \oplus h(g^{b \cdot d_A} \bmod p)$
  - Secure if  $h(g^{b \cdot d_A} \bmod p)$  is pseudo-random



# El-Gamal Public Key Cryptosystem

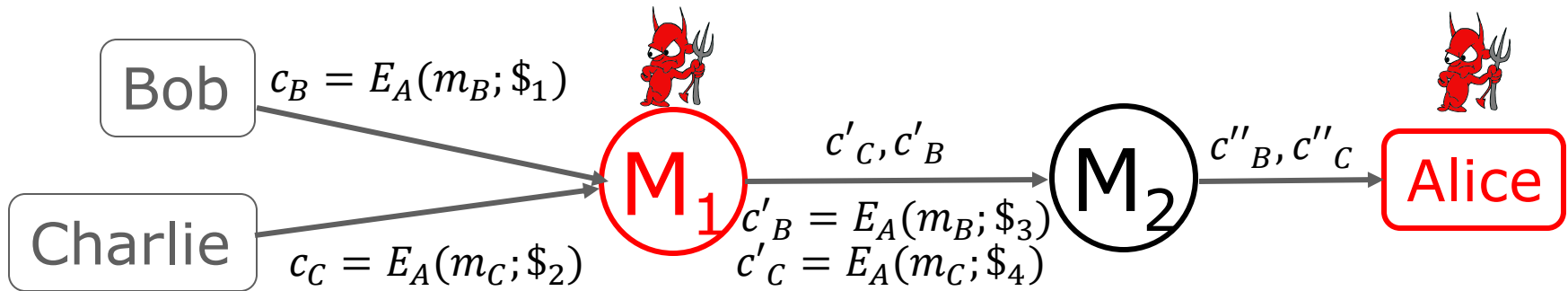
- Variant of [DH] PKC: Encrypt by multiplication, not XOR
- To encrypt message  $m$  to Alice, whose public key is  $e_A = g^{d_A} \bmod p$ :
  - Bob selects random  $b$
  - Sends:  $g^b \bmod p$ ,  $m * (e_A)^b = m * g^{b \cdot d_A} \bmod p$



- Problem:  $g^{b \cdot d_A} \bmod p$  may leak bit(s)...
- 'Classical' DH solution: securely derive a key:  $h(g^{a_i b_i} \bmod p)$
- El-Gamal's solution: use a group where DDH believed to hold
  - Note: message must be encoded as member of the group!
  - So why use it? Some special properties...

# Homomorphic Encryption

- Given: two ciphertexts  $E_{e_A}(m_1), E_{e_A}(m_2)$
- Compute  $E_{e_A}(m_1 \cdot m_2)$
- Applications, e.g.: re-encrypt for sender anonymity
  - Re-encrypt:  $E_{e_A}(m_1; \$_1) = E_{e_A}(m_1 \cdot 1) = E_{e_A}(m_1; \$_2) \cdot E_{e_A}(1)$ 
    - Notation:  $E_e(m; \$)$  : encryption of message  $m$  with random string  $\$ \in \{0,1\}^*$



- How? We show with El-Gamal

Note: does NOT work using  $h(g^{a_i b_i} \bmod p)$



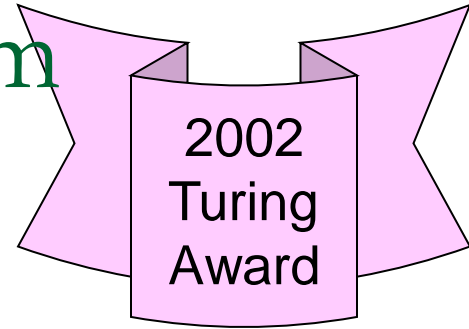
# El-Gamal PKC: homomorphism

- Given two ciphertexts:
  - $E_{e_A}(m_1) = (x_1, y_1) = (g^{b_1} \bmod p, m_1 * g^{b_1 \cdot d_A} \bmod p)$
  - $E_{e_A}(m_2) = (x_2, y_2) = (g^{b_2} \bmod p, m_2 * g^{b_2 \cdot d_A} \bmod p)$
  - $(x_1 x_2, y_1 y_2) = (g^{b_1 + b_2} \bmod p, m_1 \cdot m_2 * g^{(b_1 + b_2) \cdot d_A} \bmod p) = E_{e_A}(m_1 \cdot m_2)$
- Decrypts to same message!
- Extension: universal re-encryption:  
same but without knowing public key  $g^a$ 
  - Hint: send encryption of 1 with each ciphertext
  - Use: mix ciphertext for anonymous **recipient**, too

# Fully-homomorphic encryption?

- We discussed multiplicative-homomorphism:
  - Given: two ciphertexts  $E_{e_A}(m_1), E_{e_A}(m_2)$
  - Compute  $E_{e_A}(m_1 \cdot m_2)$
- Alternative forms of homomorphism....
  - Additive-homomorphism: Compute  $E_{e_A}(m_1 + m_2)$
  - Fully-homomorphic: both!
- Fully-homomorphic encryption:
  - Allows computing arbitrary function  $E_{e_A}(f(m_1, m_2))$ 
    - Given only encrypted values:  $E_{e_A}(m_1), E_{e_A}(m_2)$
    - Important... allows computing on encrypted data!!
    - Several designs, high overhead...

# RSA Public Key Cryptosystem



- First proposed – and still widely used
- Not really covered in this course – take crypto!
- Some basic details...
- Select two **large primes**  $p, q$  ; let  $n=pq$
- Select prime  $e$  (public key:  $\langle n, e \rangle$ )
  - Or co-prime with  $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Let private key be  $d=e^{-1} \bmod \Phi(n)$  (i.e.,  $ed=1 \bmod \Phi(n)$ )
- Encryption:  $RSA.E_{e,n}(m)=m^e \bmod n$
- Decryption:  $RSA.D_{d,n}(c)=c^d \bmod n$
- Correctness:  $D_{d,n}(E_{e,n}(m))=(m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m \bmod n$ 
  - Intuitively:  $ed=1 \bmod \Phi(n) \rightarrow m^{ed} = m \bmod n$
- But why ?
  - A bit of number-theory `magic'...

# Euler Theorem & Function $\phi_n = \Phi(n)$

- Euler's Theorem:

if  $a, n$  are co-primes then  $a^{\Phi(n)} = 1 \pmod n$

- Co-primes: no common divisor, i.e.  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

- Where  $\Phi(n)$ , called Euler function of  $n$ , is the number of positive integers less than  $n$  and co-prime to  $n$ .

| $n$       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| $\Phi(n)$ | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 4  | 10 | 4  | 12 | 6  | 8  |

- $\Phi(p) = (p-1)$  for any prime  $p$

- $\Phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$  for any primes  $p, q$

- Why?  $pq$  has common divisor with  $p, 2p, \dots, (q-1)p, q, 2q, \dots, (p-1)q$

- So number of smaller co-primes:  $(pq-1) - [(p-1) + (q-1)] = pq - p - q + 1 = (p-1)(q-1)$

# Euler Theorem & Function $\phi_n = \Phi(n)$

- Euler's Theorem:

if  $a, n$  are co-primes then  $a^{\Phi(n)} = 1 \pmod n$

- Co-primes: no common divisor, i.e.  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$

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| $\Phi(n)$ | 1 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 4 | 6 | 4  | 10 | 4  | 12 | 6  | 8  |

- For primes  $p, q$  holds  $\Phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$

- Exercises: (1) Fermat's little Theorem:

$p$  prime,  $a \pmod p \neq 0 \Rightarrow a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$

- (2)  $(\forall b) a^b = a^{b \pmod{(p-1)}} \pmod p, a^b = a^{b \pmod{\Phi(n)}} \pmod n$

# RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

- Select two large primes  $p, q$  and let  $n=pq$ 
  - $\rightarrow \Phi(n)=\Phi(pq)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- Select prime  $e$ ; public key:  $\langle n, e \rangle$ 
  - Private key:  $d=e^{-1} \bmod \Phi(n) \rightarrow ed=1+l \Phi(n)$  for some  $l$
- Encryption:  $RSA.E_{e,n}(m)=m^e \bmod n$
- Decryption:  $RSA.D_{d,n}(c)=c^d \bmod n$
- Correctness:  $D_{d,n}(E_{e,n}(m))=m^{ed} \bmod n$
- $m^{ed}=m^{ed}=m^{1+l \Phi(n)}=m m^{l \Phi(n)}=m (m^{\Phi(n)})^l$
- $m^{ed} \bmod n =m (m^{\Phi(n)} \bmod n)^l \bmod n$
- Euler's Theorem:  $m^{\Phi(n)} \bmod n=1 \bmod n$
- $\rightarrow D_{d,n}(E_{e,n}(m))=m^{ed} \bmod n=m 1^l \bmod n =m$

# RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

- Correctness:  $D_{d,n}(E_{e,n}(m)) = m^{ed} \bmod n$
- $m^{ed} = m^{ed} = m^{1+l\Phi(n)} = m m^{l\Phi(n)} = m (m^{\Phi(n)})^l$
- $m^{ed} \bmod n = m (m^{\Phi(n)} \bmod n)^l \bmod n$
- Eulers'Theorem:  $m^{\Phi(n)} \bmod n = 1 \bmod n$
- $\rightarrow D_{d,n}(E_{e,n}(m)) = m^{ed} \bmod n = m 1^l \bmod n = m$
- Comments:
  - $m < n \rightarrow m = m \bmod n$
  - Eulers'Theorem holds (only) if  $m, n$  are co-primes
  - If not co-primes? Use Chinese Remainder Theorem
    - A nice, not very complex argument
    - But: beyond our scope – take Crypto!

# The RSA Problem and Assumption

- RSA problem: Find  $m$ , given  $(n, e)$  and 'ciphertext' value  $c = m^e \bmod n$
- RSA assumption: if  $(n, e)$  are chosen 'correctly', then the RSA problem is 'hard'
  - I.e., no efficient alg can find  $m$  with high probability
  - For 'large'  $n$  and  $m \xleftarrow{\$} \{1, \dots, n\}$

- Does not prevent exposure of partial information
- May not be secure for a non-random message
- Does not ensure randomization (indistinguishability)

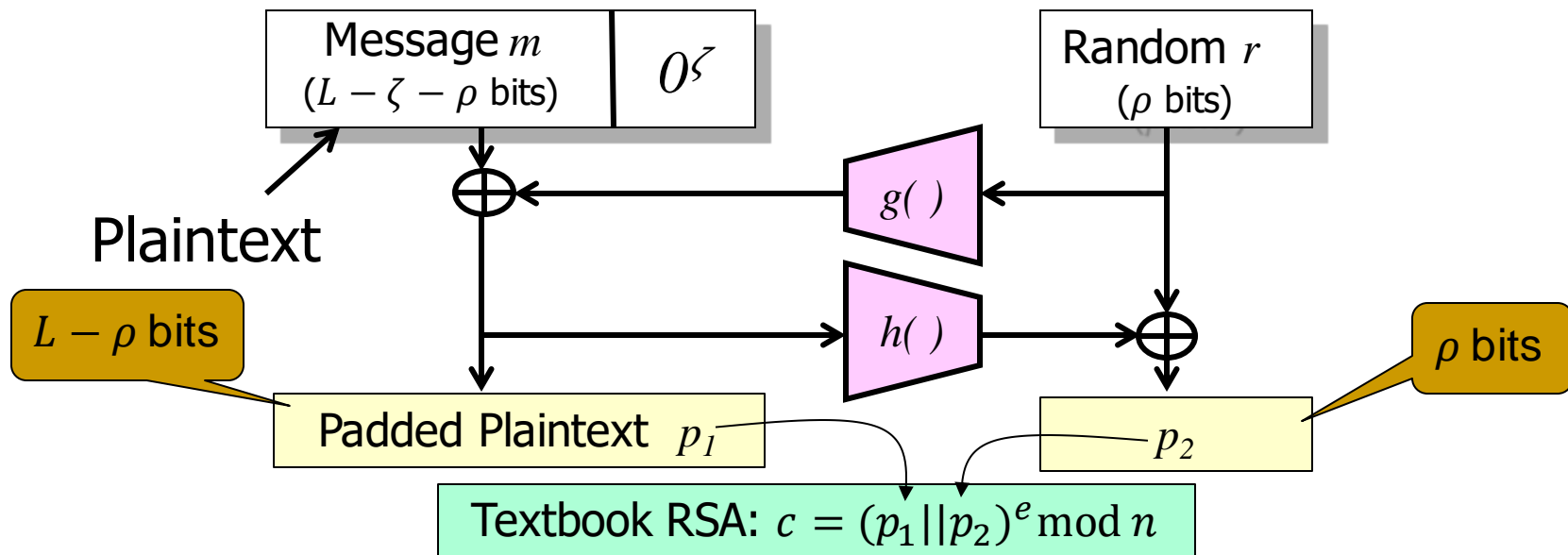


# Padding RSA

- Pad and Unpad functions:  $m = \text{Unpad}(\text{Pad}(m; r))$ 
  - Encryption with padding:  $c = [\text{Pad}(m, r)]^e \bmod n,$
  - Decryption with unpad:  $m = \text{Unpad}(c^d \bmod n)$
- Required to...
  - Add randomization
    - Prevent detection of repeating plaintext
  - Prevent ‘related message’ attack (to allow use of tiny  $e$ )
  - Detect, prevent (some) chosen-ciphertext attacks
- Early paddings schemes subject to CCA attacks
  - Even ‘Feedback-only CCA’ (aware of unpad failure)

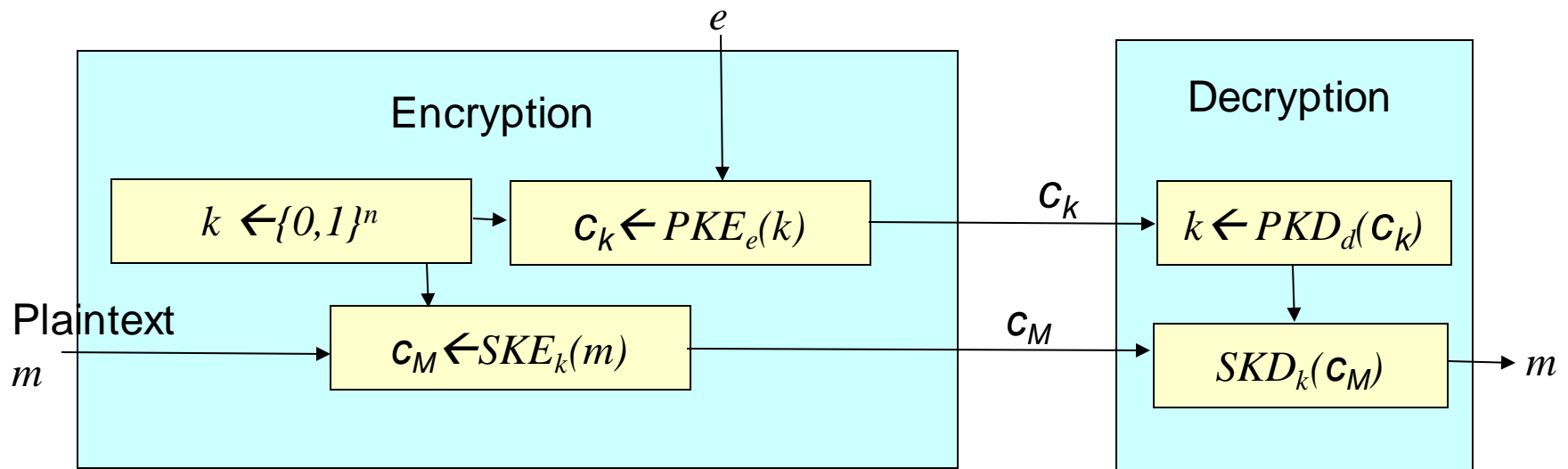
# Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP)

- No chosen-ciphertext attacks: ciphertext ‘proves’ *knowledge of plaintext*
- Feistel-like; use two crypto-hash functions  $g, h$  (assume ‘random’)
  - Let  $L$  be length of input to RSA,  $\zeta, \rho \ll L$  be ‘security parameters’ (say 80 bits)
  - $g$ : ‘random function’ from  $\rho$  bits to  $L - \rho$  bits,  $h$ : ‘random function’ from  $L - \rho$  bits to  $\rho$  bits
  - If  $p_1$  wasn’t used as input to  $h \rightarrow h(p_1)$  is ‘random’  $\rightarrow h(p_1) \oplus r$  is ‘random’  $\rightarrow g(h(p_1) \oplus r)$  is ‘random’  $\rightarrow$  highly unlikely that  $\zeta$  LSbits of  $p_1 \oplus g(h(p_1) \oplus r)$  are zero
  - This kind of argument is called *random oracle methodology (ROM)*



# Hybrid Encryption (`enveloping`)

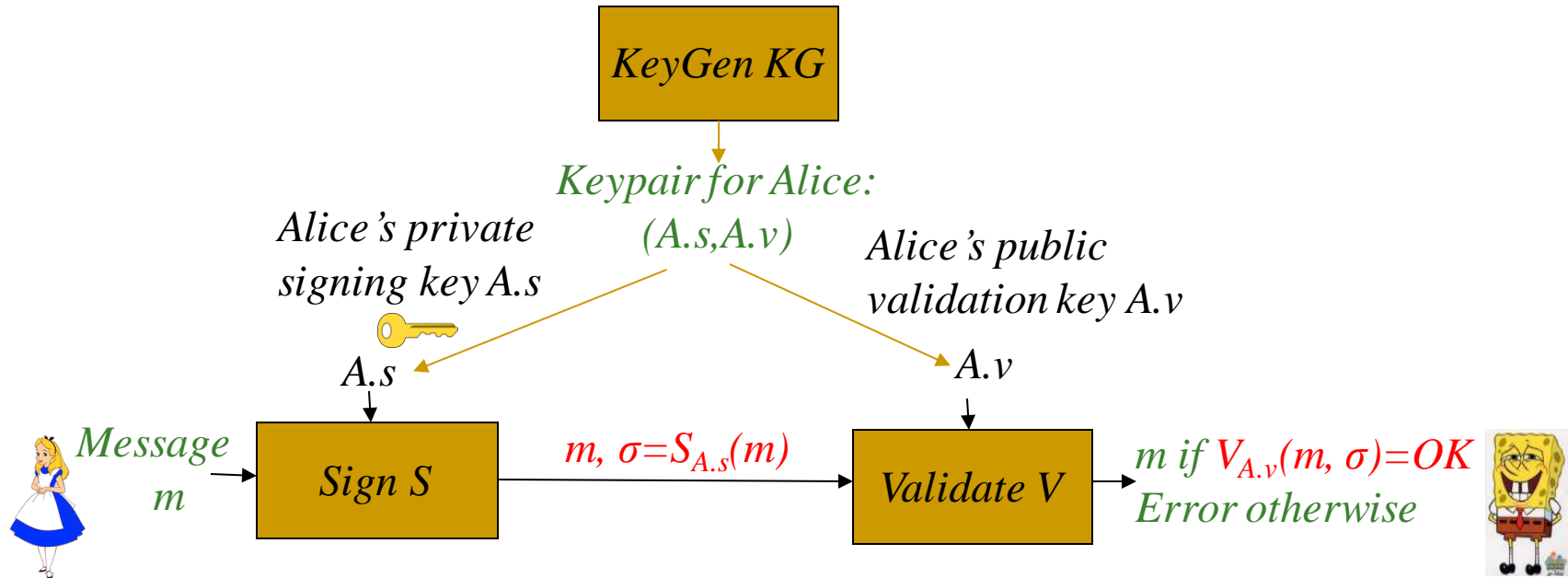
- Challenge: public key cryptosystems are slow
- Hybrid encryption:
  - Use VIL secret key cryptosystem ( $SKE, SKD$ )
  - Encrypt shared key  $k$  and use  $k$  to encrypt plaintext
  - Send ciphertext  $c_M$  (encrypted message) with encrypted key  $c_k$



# How does Bob know Alice's public key?

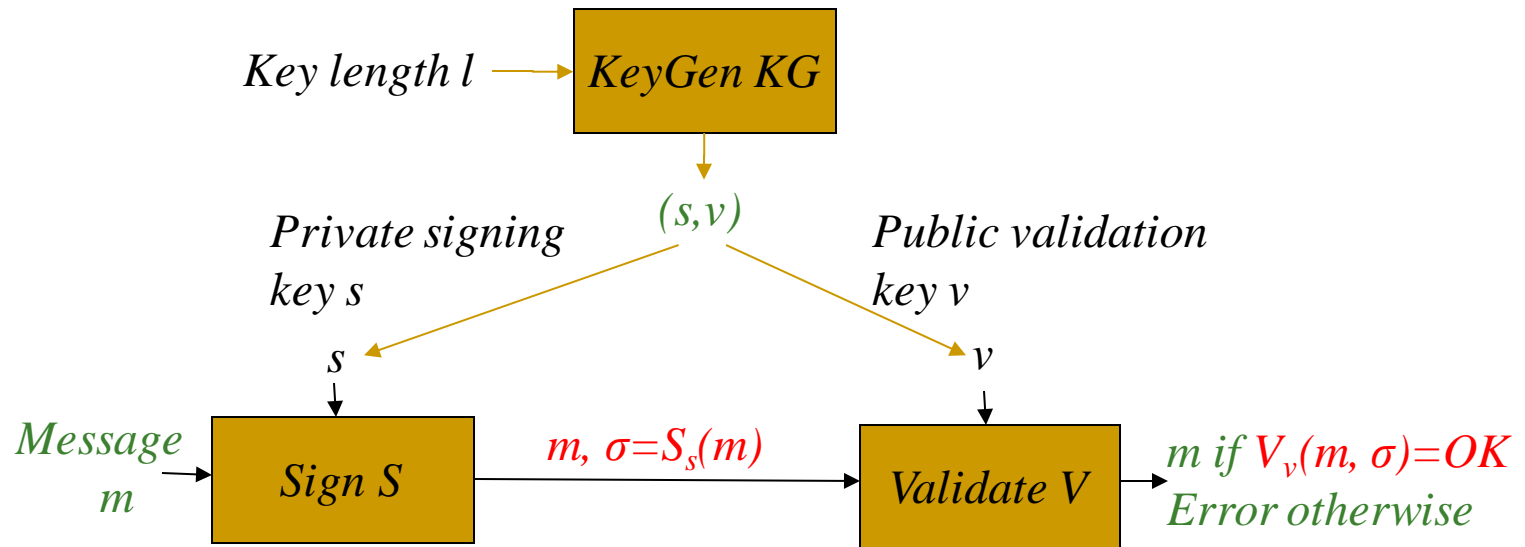
- Depends on threat model...
  - ❑ Passive (`eavesdropping`) adversary: just send it
  - ❑ Off-path (`blind`) adversary: use nonce
  - ❑ Man-in-the-Middle (MITM): **authenticate**
- Authenticate – how?
  - ❑ MAC: requires shared secret key
  - ❑ **Public key signature scheme:**  
authenticate using public key
  - ❑ Certificate: public key of entity – **signed by certificate authority (CA)**

# Public Key Digital Signatures



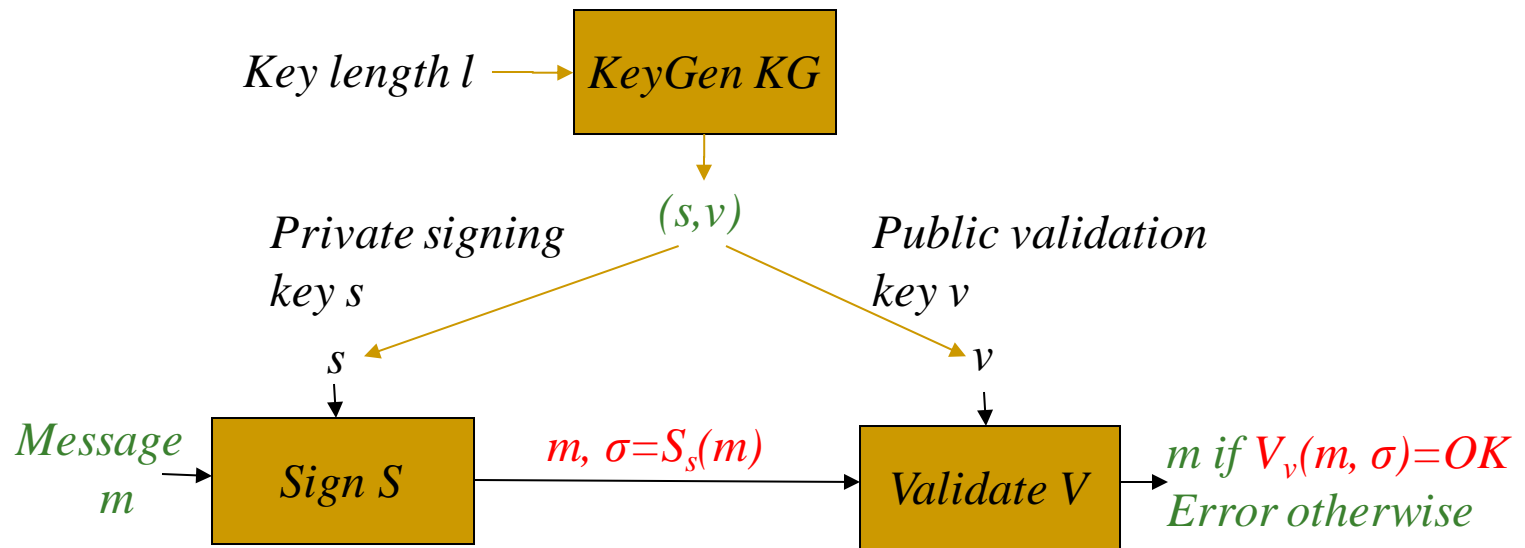
- Sign using a private, secret signature key ( $A.s$  for Alice)
- Validate using a public key ( $A.v$  for Alice)
- Everybody can validate signatures at any time
  - ❑ Provides authentication, integrity **and** evidence / non-repudiation
  - ❑ MAC: 'just' authentication+integrity, no evidence, can repudiate

# PK Signatures: Unforgeability Requirement



- Unforgeability: given  $v$ , attacker should be unable to find **any** 'valid'  $(m, \sigma)$ , i.e.,  $V_v(m, \sigma) = OK$ 
  - Even when attacker can select messages  $m'$ , receive  $\sigma' = S_s(m')$
  - For any message except chosen  $m$

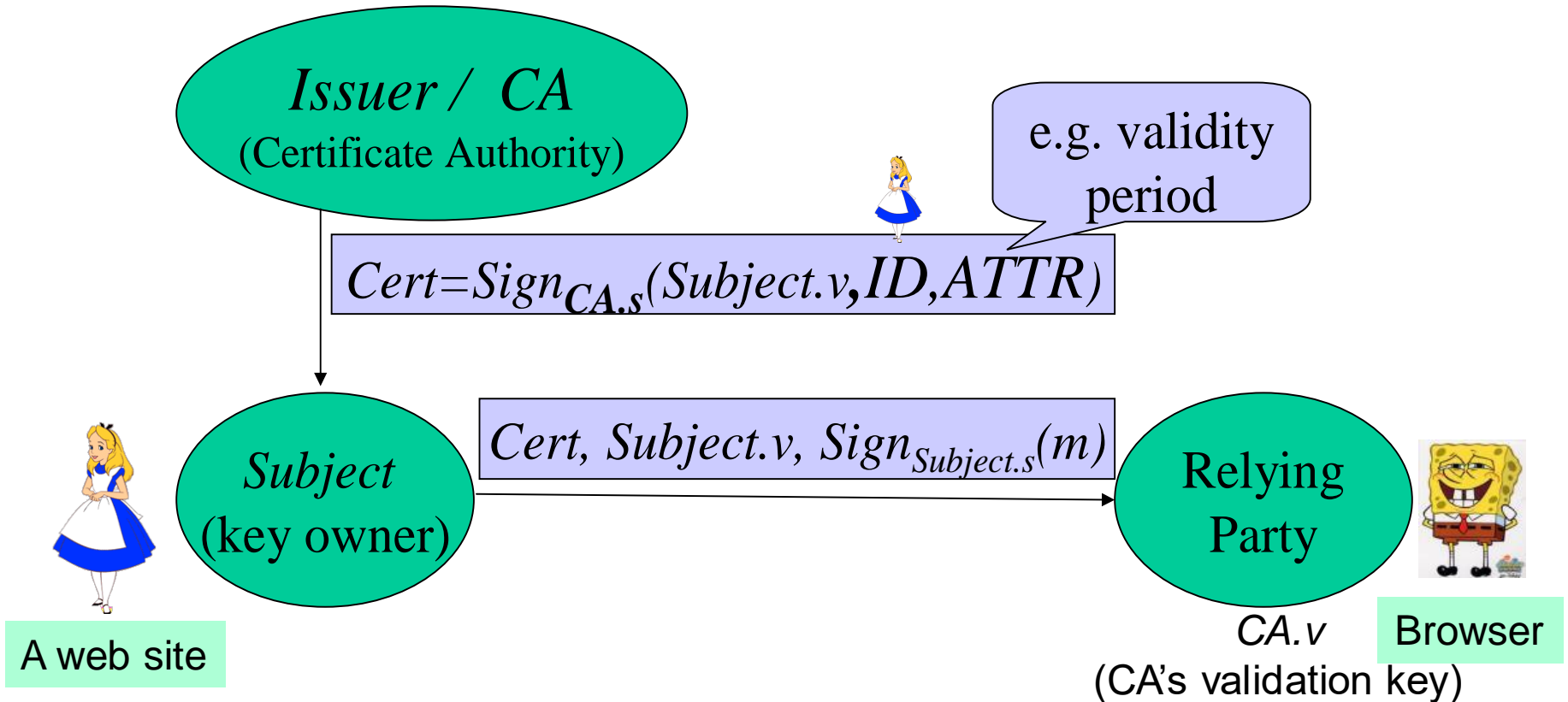
# PK Signatures: Unforgeability Requirement



- (Existential) Unforgeability Experiment:
  - ❑ Generate  $(s, v)$ , give  $v$  to attacker
  - ❑ Attacker can select messages  $m'$ , receive  $\sigma' = S_s(m')$
  - ❑ Attacker outputs claimed-forgery:  $(m, \sigma)$
  - ❑ Attacker wins if  $V_v(m, \sigma) = OK$ , and attacker never selected  $m$

# Public Key Certificate

- *Certificate*: signature by Certificate Authority (CA) over subject's public key and attributes (e.g., domain name)



More: in TLS/PKI lectures...

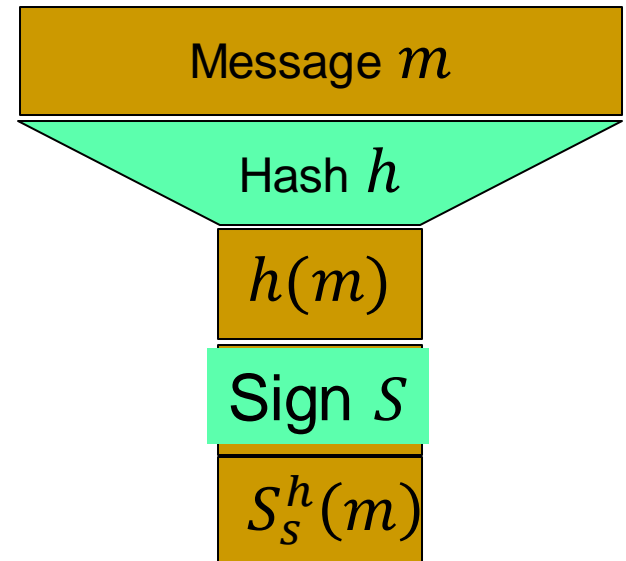


# RSA Signatures

- Secret signing key  $s$ , public verification key  $v$
- Short ( $<n$ ) messages: RSA signing with message recovery
- First attempt:
  - $\text{RSA}.S_s(m) = m^s \bmod n$ ,  
 $\text{RSA}.V_v(m, x) = \{ \text{OK if } m = x^v \bmod n; \text{ else, FAIL} \}$
  - Hmm... for any  $x$ , let  $m = x^v \bmod n$  ; then  $\text{RSA}.V_v(m, x) = \text{OK}$
  - Unforgeability requirement fails: attacker has a forgery !
- Preventing `random signatures' ?
  - $\text{RSA}.S_s(m) = \text{pad}(m)^s \bmod n$ ,  
 $\text{RSA}.V_v(m, x) = \{ \text{OK if } m = \text{unpad}(x^v \bmod n); \text{ else, FAIL} \}$
  - Pad, unpaid: redundancy added (pad) and verified (unpad)
- Long messages: ??
  - Hint: use collision resistant hash function (CRHF)

# The Hash-then-Sign Paradigm

- Challenge: messages are long, PKC is slow
- How to sign long messages – efficiently?
  - Using Collision-Resistant Hash  $h$  :
    - ➔ infeasible to find pair  $(x, x')$  s.t.  $x' \neq x$  yet  $h(x) = h(x')$
  - And signature scheme  $(S, V)$
- Solution:  $S_S^h(m) = S_S(h(m))$ 
  - Cf.: hybrid encryption



# RSA Signatures

- Secret signing key  $s$ , public verification key  $v$
- Short ( $<n$ ) messages: RSA signing with message recovery
  - $\text{RSA}.S_s(m) = R(m)^s \bmod n$ ,  
 $\text{RSA}.V_v(x) = \{R^{-1}(x^v \bmod n); \text{error if undefined}\}$
  - $R(.)$ : redundancy function ; make random string unlikely to be valid signature
- Long messages: hash-then-sign,  $\text{RSA}_h$ ,  $h:\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^L$ 
  - Aka signature with appendix
  - $\text{RSA}_h.S_s(m) = m \parallel [h(m)]^s \bmod n$
  - $\text{RSA}_h.V_v(m \parallel x) = m$  iff  $h(m) = x^v \bmod n$  (else: error)
  - $m, m'$  s.t.  $h(m) = h(m')$   $\Rightarrow \text{sign}(h(m)) = \text{sign}(h(m'))$
- $h$  is (keyless) collision resistant hash function (CRHF)  
 $\Rightarrow$  infeasible to find pair  $(x, x')$  s.t.  $x' \neq x$  yet  $h(x) = h(x')$

# Discrete-Log Digital Signature?

- RSA allowed encryption and signing... based on assuming factoring is hard
- Can we sign based on assuming discrete log is hard?
- Most well-known, popular scheme: DSA
  - Digital Signature Algorithm, by NSA/NIST
  - Details: crypto course
- We'll discuss simpler, less efficient El-Gamal Signatures

# El-Gamal signatures

- Parameters:  $p \leftarrow \text{primes}[n \text{ bit}], g \leftarrow \text{Generator}(p)$
- Key generation:  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{2, \dots, p-2\}, v \leftarrow g^s \bmod p$
- Sign:  $k \xleftarrow{\$} \{2, \dots, p-2 \mid \gcd(k, p-1) = 1\}$ 
  - $r \leftarrow g^k \bmod p, t \leftarrow (h(m) - sr) \cdot k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$
  - If  $t = 0$  then select new  $k$
  - Signature is  $(r, t)$
- Verify:  $g^{h(m)} = v^r r^t \bmod p; 0 < r < p; 0 < t < p-1$
- Correctness:
$$g^{h(m)} = g^{sr+kt} = (g^s)^r (g^k)^t = v^r r^t \bmod p$$
- Using Fermat law:  $g^b = g^{b \bmod (p-1)} \bmod p$
- Efficient off-line sign: precompute  $r \leftarrow g^k \bmod p$

# Summary

- Public key crypto allows:
  - Easier key management, distribution
    - Key agreement (DH): only need authenticated channel
    - Encryption: easier distribution, maintenance – **public** key
  - Resiliency to key exposure (PFS and PRS)
  - Signatures
    - Certificate: public key and a signature authenticating it
    - Evidences
    - Handling VIL messages: hash-then-sign
- Next: Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) and TLS