# Modern Cryptography: Lecture 11 Public Key Encryption I/II

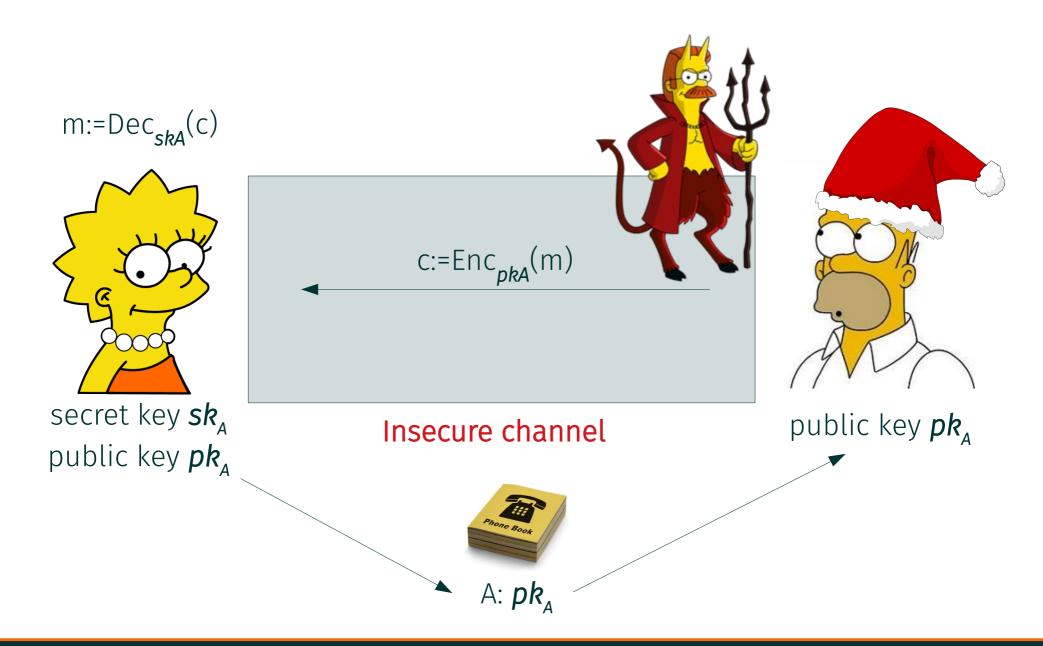
Daniel Slamanig



## Organizational

- Where to find the slides and homework?
  - https://danielslamanig.info/ModernCrypto18.html
- How to contact me?
  - daniel.slamanig@ait.ac.at
- Tutor: Karen Klein
  - karen.klein@ist.ac.at
- Official page at TU, Location etc.
  - https://tiss.tuwien.ac.at/course/courseDetails.xhtml?dswid=8632&dsrid=679& courseNr=192062&semester=2018W
- Tutorial, TU site
  - https://tiss.tuwien.ac.at/course/courseAnnouncement.xhtml?dswid=5209&dsr id=341&courseNumber=192063&courseSemester=2018W
- Exam for the second part: Thursday 31.01.2019 15:00-17:00 (Tutorial slot)

#### **Overview Public Key Encryption**



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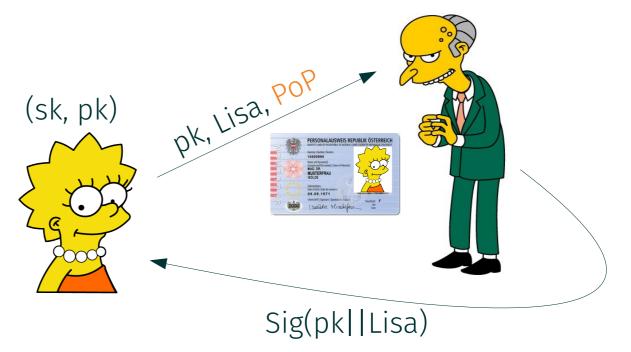
- Now every user has a secret key sk and a public key pk (secret key sk cannot be efficiently computed from pk)
- <u>Reduced effort for key management; no shared</u> <u>secret!</u>

- <u>Authentic copy</u> of **pk** can be made public
- How to guarantee that public keys are authentic in practice?
  - Public keys look "random" and no relation to identiy of the holder exists so binding must be done explicitly
  - Let some trusted entity (CA) explicitly "certify" the connection between ID and pk
  - Later in the course we will then see an alternative approach
    - public key = identity (identity-based encryption)
    - But setting is different

# Certifying Public Keys

#### Certificate Authority (CA)

- Demonstrate that you hold sk for pk
  - Proof of Possession (PoP)
- CA certifies pk||ID
  - ID: mail, domain, etc.
- CA is trusted to operate properly (PKI model)
  - CA is "self-certified"
- Alternative models
  - Web of trust (e.g., PGP)
  - Decentralized PKI (DPKI)
    - "Self Sovereign Identity" (e.g., Sovrin)



#### Overview Public Key Encryption

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SSL Server Certificate	Expires on: October 18, 2019	
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	Object Identifier (1 3 6 1 4 1 11129 2 4 2)	
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	e3 ea 1d 76 96 b6 bd 50 e7 c3 7a 0c c6 9e b7 74 48 3b 42 e3 33 4b e4 10 20 e5 e3 c0 dd 0b 77 fc	
	a3 a8 9f bf 4a 53 1d a8 39 d9 3b 2a 1b ab 85 4f	
	69 03 71 7b de 34 cf dc 51 f4 90 ac f8 f0 57 d8	
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<u>DEFINITION 11.1</u> A public-key encryption scheme is a triple of PPT algorithms (Gen, Enc, Dec) such that:

1. <u>The **key-generation** algorithm **Gen**</u> takes as input the security parameter  $1^{n}$  and outputs a pair of keys (pk, sk) (the message space  $\mathcal{M}$  is implicit in the public key).

2. <u>The encryption algorithm Enc</u> takes as input a public key pk and a message m from some message space. It outputs a ciphertext c, and we write this as  $c \leftarrow Enc_{pk}(m)$ . (We often also write  $c \leftarrow Enc(m, pk)$ )

3. <u>The deterministic decryption algorithm Dec</u> takes as input a private key sk and a ciphertext c, and outputs a message m or a special symbol  $\bot$  denoting failure. We write this as m :=  $Dec_{sk}(c)$ . (We often also write m := Dec(c, sk)).

It is required that, except possibly with negligible probability over  $(pk, sk) \leftarrow Gen(1^n)$ , we have

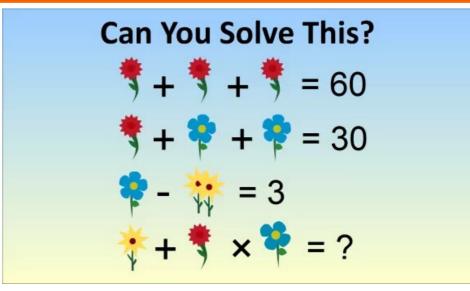
 $Dec_{sk}(Enc_{pk}(m)) = m$ 

for any message  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ .

- The <u>encryption</u> algorithm may be deterministic or probabilistic
- The <u>decryption</u> algorithm may be perfectly correct (never fails) or may fail with negligible probability
- Every instance has an associated <u>message space</u>  $\mathcal{M}$  (which we assume to be implicitly defined when seeing the public key)
  - In the simplest case we encrypt bits
    - it is easy to extend such a scheme to bitstrings  $\{0,1\}^k$
  - Usually  ${\cal M}$  represents some algebraic structure which does not contain all bitstrings of some fixed size
    - typically we have efficient ways to injectively encode messages from  $\{0,\!1\}^k$  into elements from  ${\cal M}$

#### Constructing Public Key Encryption

• Need some <u>hard problems</u> to rely on!



- Will look into constructions from <u>factoring-related problems</u>
  - RSA in particular
- Will look at constructions from <u>DL-related problems</u> (next lecture)
  - We already have discussed DDH and CDH

- Every integer N>1 can be uniquely (up to ordering) written as N=∏<sub>i</sub> p<sub>i</sub><sup>ei</sup>
  - $p_i$  are distinct primes and  $e_i \ge 1$  for all i
- Given a factorization it is easy to compute the composite N
- Computing the factorization is hard for certain forms of composites
  - Hardest if numbers to factor have only <u>large prime factors</u>
- A trivial algorithm to find the factors of any given N is trival division
  - Inefficient as it represents an exponential-time algorithm

# Factoring

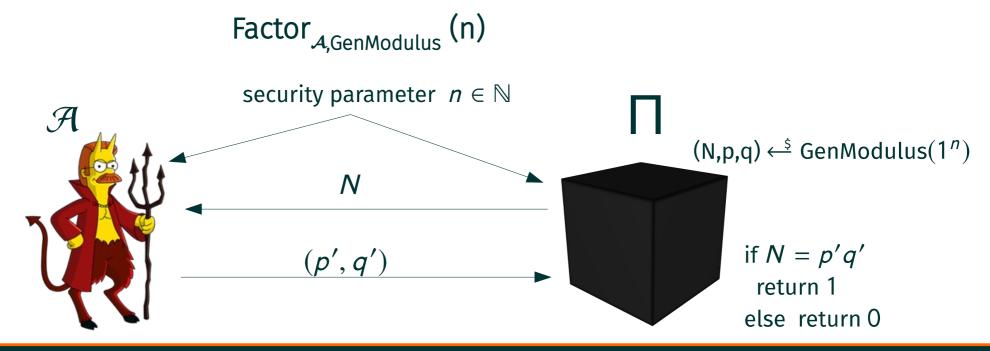
- Two types of algorithms
  - <u>Generic ones</u>: apply to arbitrary N
  - <u>Specific ones</u>: tailored to work for N of some specific form
- Specific algorithm
  - Pollard's p-1 method: Factor N=pq when p-1 has small prime factors
    - Choosing uniform n-bit primes p,q, small prime factors of p-1 and q-1 are very unlikely
- General purpose algorithms
  - Pollard's rho method:  $O(N^{1/4} \cdot polylog(q))$  runtime (still exponential)
  - Fastest general purpose factoring algorithm is the general number field sieve
    - Subexponential with runtime  $2^{\mathcal{O}((\log N)1/3 \cdot (\log \log N)2/3)}$

## Factoring

 Let GenModulus be a polynomial-time algorithm that on input 1<sup>n</sup> outputs (N,p,q) where N=pq and p,q are n-bit primes.

<u>DEFINITION 8.45</u>: Factoring is hard relative to GenModulus if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$  there exists a negligible function such that

 $\Pr[Factoring_{\mathcal{A},GenModulus}(n)=1] \le negl(n)$ .

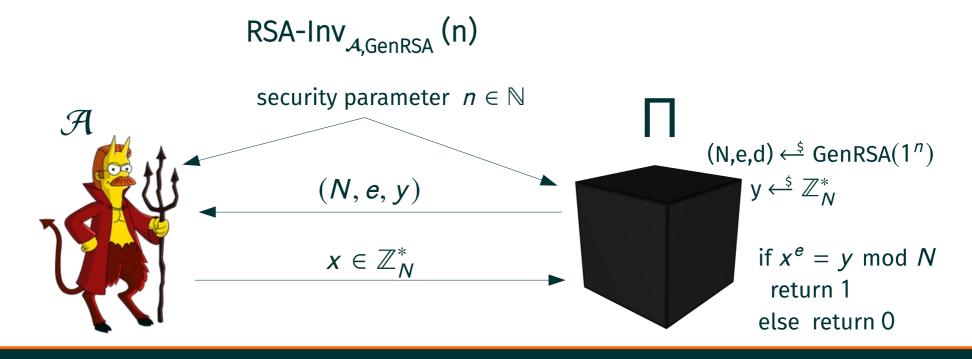


#### **RSA** Assumption

Let GenRSA be a polynomial-time algorithm that on input 1<sup>n</sup> outputs (N,e,d) where N=pq and p,q are n-bit primes and e,d>0 are integers s.t. gcd(e,φ(N))=1 and ed = 1 mod φ(N).

<u>DEFINITION 8.46</u>: The RSA problem is hard relative to GenRSA if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$  there exists a negligible function such that

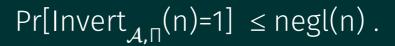
 $\Pr[\text{RSA-Inv}_{\mathcal{A},\text{GenRSA}}(n)=1] \le \operatorname{negl}(n)$ .

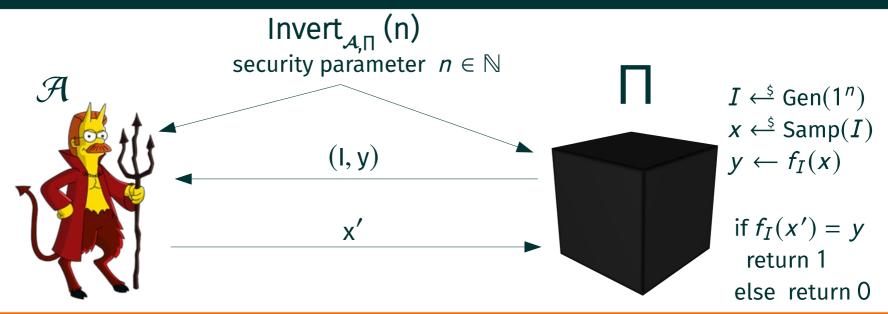


## **One-Way Permutation (OWP)**

- <u>DEFINITION 8.75</u>: A triple Π = (Gen, Samp, f) of PPT algorithms is a family of permutations if the following hold:
  - The parameter-generation algorithm Gen, on input 1<sup>n</sup>, outputs parameters I with |I| ≥ n.
     Each value of I defines a set D<sub>I</sub> that constitutes the domain and range of a permutation (i.e., bijection) f<sub>I</sub> : D<sub>I</sub> → D<sub>I</sub>.

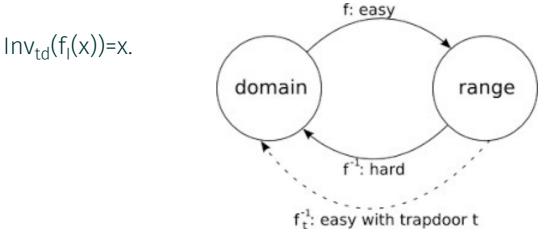
<u>DEFINITION 8.76</u>: The family of permutations  $\Pi$  = (Gen, Samp, f) is one-way if for all PPT algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$  there exists a negligible function negl such that





#### Trapdoor One-Way Permutation

- <u>DEFINITION 13.1</u>: A triple Π = (Gen, Samp, f, Inv) of PPT algorithms is a family of trapdoor permutations if the following hold:
  - The **parameter-generation algorithm Gen**, on input 1<sup>n</sup>, outputs parameters (I, td) with  $|I| \ge n$ . Each value of I defines a set D<sub>I</sub> that constitutes the domain and range of a permutation (i.e., bijection)  $f_I : D_I \rightarrow D_I$ .
  - Let Gen' be Gen that only outputs I. Then, (Gen',Samp,f) is a family of OWPs.
  - Let (I, td) be the output of Gen(1<sup>n</sup>). The deterministic inverting algorithm Inv, on input td and y ∈ D<sub>1</sub>, outputs an element x ∈ D<sub>1</sub>. We write this as x := Inv<sub>td</sub>(y). We require that with all but negl. probability over (I, td) output by Gen(1<sup>n</sup>) and uniform choice of x ∈ D<sub>1</sub>, we have



#### One-Way Permutation – Candidates

- RSA Assumption
  - Is it a OWP? Yes, we assume.
- Best currently known way to break RSA assumption is to factor N and then compute e'th roots mod p and q and use CRT to recover the final result
  - RSA Assumption implies Factoring
- Do we need to factor?
  - Computing e'th roots modulo N yields a facotring algorithm? <u>Unknown</u> for e ≥ 3.
  - Not known to be equivalent to factoring
- Equivalence known for square roots!
  - Not a special case of RSA (2 not coprime to  $\phi(N)$ )
  - Rabin cryptosystem (not popular in practice)

- <u>KeyGen(1<sup>n</sup>)</u>: Pick two random n-bit primes p,q, set N = pq, pick e s.t. gcd(e,φ(N)) = 1, compute d := e<sup>-1</sup> mod φ(N) output (sk, pk) := ((d, N), (e,N))
- Enc (m, pk): On input  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  and pk = (e , N) , compute and output

c := me mod N

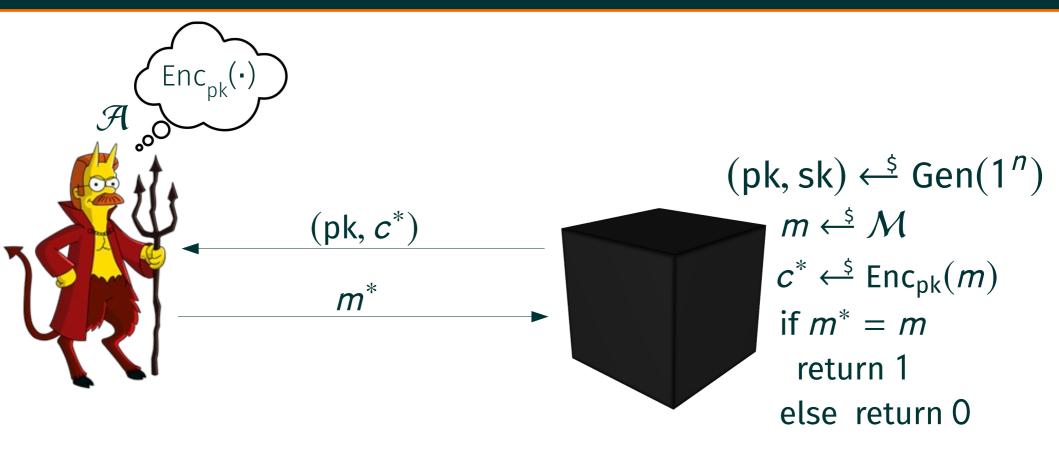
• <u>Dec (c, sk)</u>: On input c an d sk = (d , N) , compute and output

 $m := c^d \mod N$ 

We have for all  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  that  $m = (m^e)^d \mod N$ 

Proof of correctness of RSA will be done as a HW.

#### **OW-CPA** Security

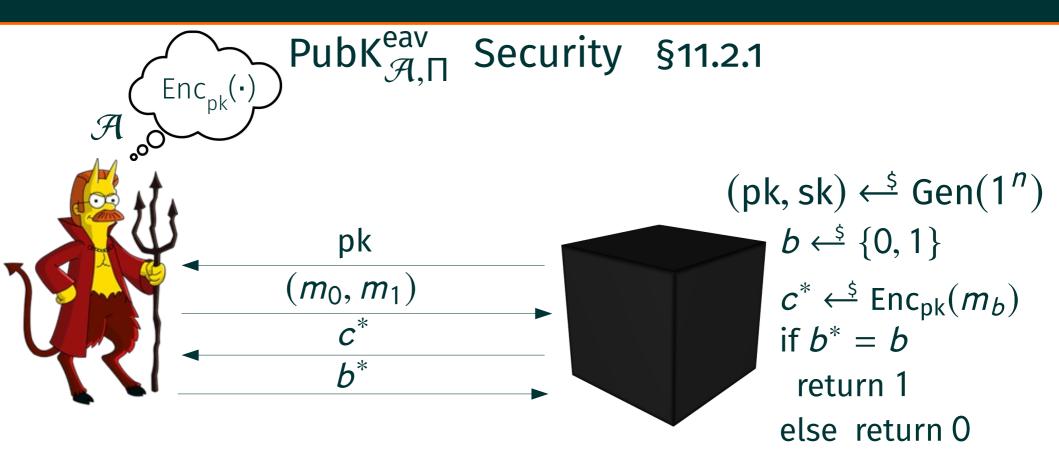


A public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi$  = (Gen, Enc, Dec) has one-way encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper if for all PPT adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$  there is a negligible function negl s.t.

> ow-cpa $Pr[PubK_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}(n)=1] \leq negl(n)$ .

- One-way security (OW-CPA) under RSA Assumption
  - Adversary gets public key and encryption of a <u>random</u> message
  - Adversary needs to output the message
- Very weak security guarantees
  - Guarantees only for uniformly random messages
  - Adversary has to reconstruct entire message
- Interesting property: <u>homomorphic PKE</u>
  - Given two ciphertexts c<sub>1</sub> and c<sub>2</sub> under same public key, we can operate on the underlying plaintexts without prior decryption
    - $c_1 = m_1^e \mod N$ ,  $c_2 = m_2^e \mod N$ :  $c_1c_2 = (m_1m_2)^e \mod N$
  - Problem (no CCA secuirty see next lecture), but also interesting feature (if at least IND-CPA secure)

#### **IND-CPA** Security

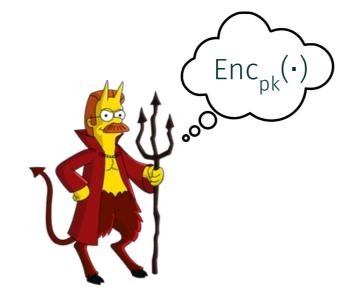


A public-key encryption scheme  $\Pi$  = (Gen, Enc, Dec) has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper if for all probabilistic polynomial-time adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$  there is a negligible function negl s.t.

 $\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{PubK}_{\mathcal{A},\Pi}^{(n)=1}] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \operatorname{negl}(n)$ .

#### Some Observations

#### <u>PROPOSITION 11.3</u> If a public-key encryption scheme has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper, it is IND-CPA-secure.



Analogous for one-wayness

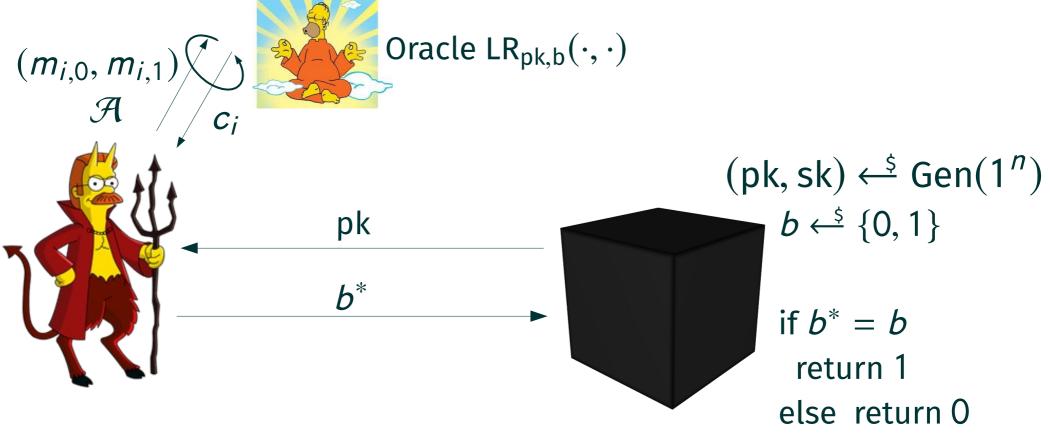
#### THEOREM: No public-key encryption scheme can be perfectly secret.

# <u>THEOREM 11.4</u> No deterministic public-key encryption scheme is IND-CPA-secure.

Why?

## **Multiple Encryptions**

• In practice we want to use the same pk to encrypt multiple messages



<u>THEOREM 11.6</u> If a public-key encryption scheme П is IND-CPA-secure, then it also has indistinguishable multiple encryptions.

### Proof Idea

- Let us fix a polynomial bound t=poly(n) on the queries to LoR
- We now define a sequence of "intermediate experiments"
  - Let us start in an experiment where LoR has bit b=0
    - Adversary submits ((m $_{\rm 1,0},m_{\rm 1,1}$ ), ..., (m $_{\rm t,0},m_{\rm t,1}$ )) and LoR always return encryptions of  $m_{\rm i,0}$
    - Adversary sees  $(E_{pk}(m_{1,0}), ..., E_{pk}(m_{t,0}))$
  - Let the i'th experiment change the first i positions in the responses to  $(E_{pk}(m_{1,1}),\,...,\,E_{pk}(m_{i,1}))$
  - After t steps we end up with LoR replying (E<sub>pk</sub>(m<sub>1,1</sub>), ..., E<sub>pk</sub>(m<sub>t,1</sub>)) and thus are in the experiment where LoR has bit b=1
- If the probability of distuinguishing the first and the last experiment is negligble, we have proven our claim
- Formally, we use a hybrid argument

$$(E_{pk}(m_{1,0}), ..., E_{pk}(m_{1,0})) \approx (E_{pk}(m_{1,1}), ..., E_{pk}(m_{1,0})) \approx ... \approx (E_{pk}(m_{1,1}), ..., E_{pk}(m_{1,0})) \approx (E_{pk}(m_{1,1}), ..., E_{pk}(m_{1,1}))$$
  
Reduction to IND-CPA

#### Arbitrary Long Messages

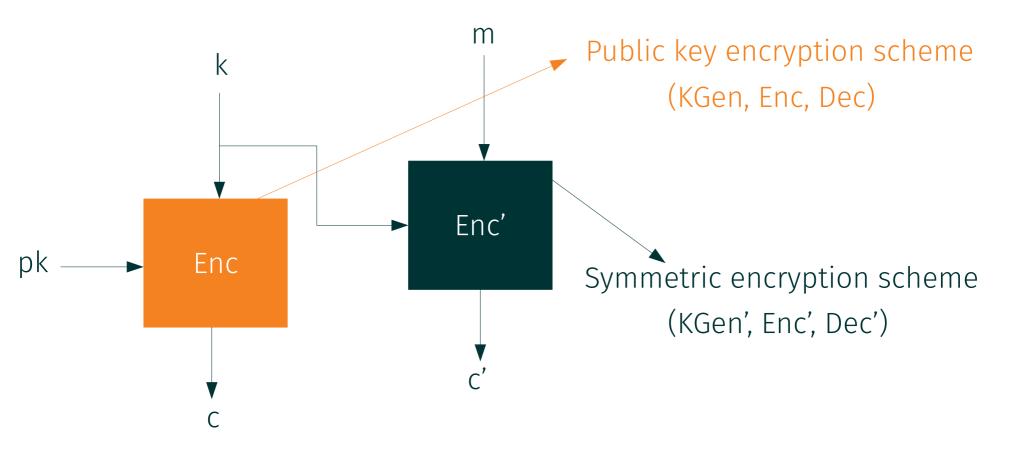
- We can use this fact to construct from any PKE Π = (Gen, Enc, Dec) another PKE Π' = (Gen, Enc', Dec').
- Assume that  $\Pi$  encrypts messages from  $\{0,1\}^m,$  then we can construct a scheme for messages of length  $\{0,1\}^{m\cdot k}$  for any  $k\in\mathbb{N}$
- Encryption simply looks as follows and decryption works the obvious way:

- 
$$Enc'_{pk}(m) := Enc_{pk}(m_1), \dots, Enc_{pk}(m_k)$$

<u>CLAIM 11.7</u> Let  $\Pi$  and  $\Pi'$  be as above. If  $\Pi$  is IND-CPA-secure, then so is  $\Pi'$ .

### Arbitrary Long Messages in Practice

- The previous method is rather inefficient
- In practice so called "hybrid encryption" is used
  - Formal discussion after the holidays via the KEM/DEM paradigm



### Random Oracle Model (ROM)

- Function H that can be accessed in a black-box way
  - Answers consistently for values x already seen
  - For new values x, choose random n bit string as answer

Truly random function H:  $\{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ 



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• Do they exist?

Х

H(x)

NO! But let us assume cryptographic hash functions behave "approximately" like ROs

Look up, throw dice, write down,....

#### Random Oracle Model (ROM)

- Why ROM?
  - Allows efficient constructions of cryptographic primitives with "provable security" guarantees
  - The secuirty proofs are then in the ROM
  - Efficient signature and encryption schemes (RSA-OAEP, RSA-PSS, etc.)



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- How are they used in security proofs?
  - Sample a random H at the beginning of an experiment
  - Output of ROM fully hidden unless queried, i.e., H(m||r) for r a large random string
  - Typically we assume that the reduction can "program" the random oracle, i.e., can choose the answers to the oracle calls
    - This is easily possible as all the answers are independent
    - Can embed information usable to the reduction in oracle answers (we will see examples)

- Often considered as a "heuristic" argument for security instead of a real proof, as ROM is a very strong idealization
- There are schemes that can be shown secure in the ROM, but insecure when ROM is replaced with **any** real hash function
  - Though, this example is very artificial
  - No realistic example of this type known
- Proofs in the ROM for practical constructions appear to be very robust!

# RSA Encryption in the ROM (A hybrid encryption scheme)

- Let  $H: \mathbb{Z}_N \to \{0,1\}^k$  be a hash function modeled as a random oracle
- Let RSA encryption and decryption be as follows:
  - Enc(m , pk) := (H(x)  $\oplus$  m , x<sup>e</sup> mod N) for m  $\in$  {0,1}<sup>k</sup> and x  $\leftarrow \$ \mathbb{Z}_N *$
  - $Dec((c_1,c_2), sk) := H(c_2^d \mod N) \oplus c_1$

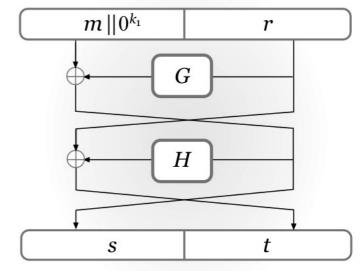
<u>CLAIM</u>: The above construction is CPA-secure under the RSA assumption in the ROM.

#### Proof idea:

- To obtain information about m from  $(c_1, c_2)$  one has to learn information about H(x)
- If the adversary does not query H(x), then challenge ciphertext is independent from  $m_b$
- To learn information about H(x), adversary has to query it. We can embed RSA challenge y as c\* = (r, y) with r uniformly random
- Challenge ciphertext is hidden information theoretically unless random oracle queried on x s.t. y = x<sup>e</sup> mod N
- If this happens, we have an adversary against the RSA assumption (thus we can rule out, that the adversary queries x to H).

#### Standardized Padded Variants of RSA

- Use of textbook RSA on preprocessed messages
- RSA-PKCS# 1 v1.5 (should not be used!!)\*
  - "Padded RSA": Basically, encrypt m':=m||r with random r
    - PKCS(m, r) = 0x00||0x02||r||0x00||m
  - No proof of security for assumed CPA secure version known
  - Definitely no CCA security (see next lecture)
- **RSA-OAEP** (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding)
  - More complex preprocessing
  - Two-round Feistel network with G and H as round functions
    - Invertible!
  - Proof of IND-CCA security in the ROM; thus also IND-CPA secure



\*Matthew Green: "PKCS#1v1.5 is awesome — if you're teaching a class on how to attack cryptographic protocols. In all other circumstances it sucks."

#### RSA Implementation (Pitfalls)

- Small public exponents, i.e., e=3
  - Efficient encryption (only two multiplications)
  - Various attack scenarios known (to reconstruct the message)
    - If the same message is encrypted under at least 3 different public keys
    - If short messsages are encrypted (and no modular reduction required)
- Reasonable choice of public exponent: e=65537
  - Avoids low-exponent attacks and reasonable fast: 65537 = 2<sup>16</sup>+1
- Private exponents must not be too small
  - Brute force attacks
  - Even if d≈N<sup>1/4</sup> (Wiener, improved by Boneh & Durfee) attacks are known