

# ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION

## Recommended Book

Steven Levy. *Crypto*. Penguin books. 2001.

A non-technical account of the history of public-key cryptography and the colorful characters involved.

# Recall Symmetric Cryptography

- Before Alice and Bob can communicate securely, they need to have a common secret key  $K_{AB}$ .
- If Alice wishes to also communicate with Charlie then she and Charlie must also have another common secret key  $K_{AC}$ .
- If Alice generates  $K_{AB}, K_{AC}$ , they must be communicated to her partners over private and authenticated channels.

# Public Key Encryption

- Alice has a secret key that is shared with nobody, and an associated public key that is known to everybody.
- Anyone (Bob, Charlie, ...) can use Alice's public key to send her an encrypted message which only she can decrypt.

Think of the public key like a phone number that you can look up in a database

# Public Key Encryption

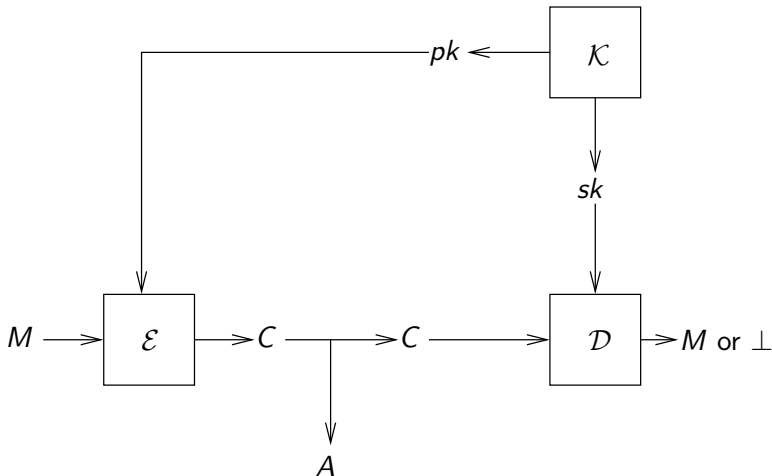
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- Senders don't need secrets
- There are no **shared** secrets

# Syntax of PKE

A public-key (or asymmetric) encryption scheme  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  consists of three algorithms, where



# How it Works

**Step 1:** Key generation

Alice locally computers  $(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$  and stores  $sk$ .

**Step 2:** Alice enables any prospective sender to get  $pk$ .

**Step 3:** The sender encrypts under  $pk$  and Alice decrypts under  $sk$ .

We don't require privacy of  $pk$  but we do require authenticity: the sender should be assured  $pk$  is really Alice's key and not someone else's. One could

- Put public keys in a trusted but public “phone book”, say a cryptographic DNS.
- Use [certificates](#) as we will see later.

The issues are the same as for symmetric encryption:

- Want general purpose schemes
- Security should not rely on assumptions about usage setting
- Want to prevent leakage of partial information about plaintexts



# Security requirements

Suppose sender computes

$$C_1 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{E}_{pk}(M_1); \dots; C_q \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{E}_{pk}(M_q)$$

Adversary  $A$  has  $C_1, \dots, C_q$

What if $A$	
Retrieves $sk$	Bad!
Retrieves $M_1$	Bad!

But also ...

We want to hide all partial information about the data stream.

Examples of partial information:

- Does  $M_1 = M_2$ ?
- What is first bit of  $M_1$ ?
- What is XOR of first bits of  $M_1, M_2$ ?

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Something we won't hide: the length of the message

The adversary needs to be given the public key.

# Intuition for definition of IND

Consider encrypting one of two possible message streams, either

$$M_0^1, \dots, M_0^q$$

or

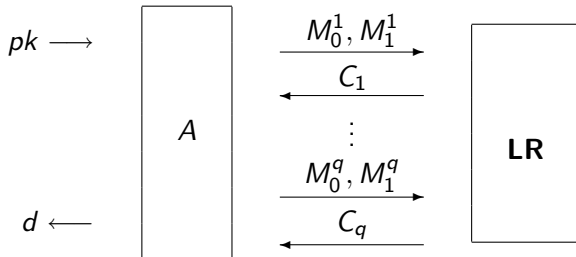
$$M_1^1, \dots, M_1^q$$

Adversary, given ciphertexts and both data streams, has to figure out which of the two streams was encrypted.

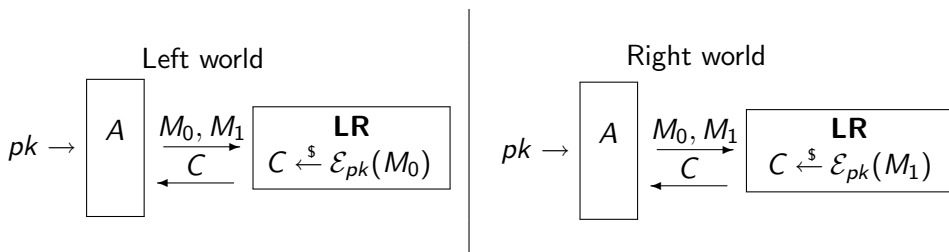
Let  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  be an public-key encryption scheme

An ind-cpa adversary  $A$  has input  $pk$  and an oracle **LR**

- It can make a query  $M_0, M_1$  consisting of any two equal-length messages
- It can do this many times
- Each time it gets back a ciphertext
- It eventually outputs a bit



Let  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  be a public-key encryption scheme



$A$ 's output $d$	Intended meaning: I think I am in the
1	Right world
0	Left world

The harder it is for  $A$  to guess world it is in, the more “secure”  $\mathcal{AE}$  is as an encryption scheme.

# The games

Let  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  be a public-key encryption scheme

Game  $\text{Left}_{\mathcal{AE}}$

**procedure Initialize**

$(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$ ; return  $pk$

**procedure LR**( $M_0, M_1$ )

Return  $C \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{E}_{pk}(M_0)$

Game  $\text{Right}_{\mathcal{AE}}$

**procedure Initialize**

$(pk, sk) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$ ; return  $pk$

**procedure LR**( $M_0, M_1$ )

Return  $C \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{E}_{pk}(M_1)$

Associated to  $\mathcal{AE}$ ,  $A$  are the probabilities

$$\Pr \left[ \text{Left}_{\mathcal{AE}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right] \quad | \quad \Pr \left[ \text{Right}_{\mathcal{AE}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right]$$

that  $A$  outputs 1 in each world. The **ind-cpa advantage** of  $A$  is

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{AE}}^{\text{ind-cpa}}(A) = \Pr \left[ \text{Right}_{\mathcal{AE}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right] - \Pr \left[ \text{Left}_{\mathcal{AE}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right]$$



We may assume  $A$  makes only one **LR** query. It can be shown that this can decrease its advantage by at most the number of **LR** queries.

# Building a PKE Scheme

We would like security to result from the hardness of computing discrete logarithms.

Let the receiver's public key be  $g$  where  $G = \langle g \rangle$  is a cyclic group. Let's let the encryption of  $x$  be  $g^x$ . Then

$$\underbrace{g^x}_{\mathcal{E}_g(x)} \xrightarrow{\text{hard}} x$$

so to recover  $x$ , adversary must compute discrete logarithms, and we know it can't, so are we done?

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**Problem:** Legitimate receiver needs to compute discrete logarithm to decrypt too! But decryption needs to be feasible.

Above, receiver has no secret key!

# DH Key Exchange

Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group of order  $m$ .

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Alice} & & \text{Bob} \\ x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_m; X \leftarrow g^x & \begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{X} \\ \xleftarrow{Y} \end{array} & y \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_m; Y \leftarrow g^y \end{array}$$

Then

$$Y^x = (g^y)^x = g^{xy} = (g^x)^y = X^y$$

- Alice can compute  $K = Y^x$
- Bob can compute  $K = X^y$
- But adversary wanting to compute  $K$  is faced with

$$g^x, g^y \longrightarrow g^{xy}$$

which is exactly the CDH problem and is computationally hard.

So this enables Alice and Bob to get a common shared key which they can then use to secure their communications.

# The El Gamal Scheme: Idea

We can turn DH key exchange into a public key encryption scheme via

- Let Alice have public key  $g^x$  and secret key  $x$
- If Bob wants to encrypt  $M$  for Alice, he
  - Picks  $y$  and sends  $g^y$  to Alice
  - Encrypts  $M$  under  $g^{xy} = (g^x)^y$  and sends ciphertext to Alice.
- But Alice can recompute  $g^{xy} = (g^y)^x$  because
  - $g^y$  is in the received ciphertext
  - $x$  is her secret key

Thus she can decrypt and adversary is still faced with CDH .

# EG Encryption, in Full

Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group of order  $m$ . The EG PKE scheme  $\mathcal{AE}_{\text{EG}} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  is defined by

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{Alg} \mathcal{K} \\ x \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_m \\ X \leftarrow g^x \\ \text{return } (X, x) \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{Alg} \mathcal{E}_X(M) \\ y \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} \mathbf{Z}_m; Y \leftarrow g^y \\ K \leftarrow X^y \\ W \leftarrow K \cdot M \\ \text{return } (Y, W) \end{array} \right| \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{Alg} \mathcal{D}_x(Y, W) \\ K = Y^x \\ M \leftarrow W \cdot K^{-1} \\ \text{return } M \end{array}$$

We assume the message  $M \in G$  is a group element.

Correct decryption is assured because

$$K = X^y = g^{xy} = Y^x$$

Implementation uses several algorithms we have studied before:  
exponentiation, inverse.

# Security of $\mathcal{AE}_{EG}$

secret key =  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_m$ , where  $m = |G|$

public key =  $X = g^x \in G = \langle g \rangle$

algorithm  $\mathcal{E}_X(M)$

$y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_m$ ;  $Y \leftarrow g^y$

$K \leftarrow X^y$ ;  $W \leftarrow K \cdot M$

return  $(Y, W)$

algorithm  $\mathcal{D}_X(Y, W)$

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return  $M$

- To find  $x$  given  $X$ , adversary must solve DL problem



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- To find  $x$  given  $X$ , adversary must solve **DL** problem
- To find  $M$  given  $X, (Y, W)$ , adversary must compute  $K = g^{xy}$ , meaning solve **CDH** problem
- But what prevents leakage of partial information about  $M$ ? Is the scheme IND-CPA secure?

# Security of $\mathcal{AE}_{EG}$ in $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$

In  $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$ , where  $p$  is a **prime**

- DL, CDH are hard, yet
- There is an attack showing  $\mathcal{AE}_{EG}$  is **NOT** IND-CPA secure

Number theory is fun!

# Squares

We say that  $a$  is a square (or quadratic residue) modulo  $p$  if there exists  $b$  such that  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

We let

$$J_p(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a square mod } p \\ 0 & \text{if } a \pmod{p} = 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

be the Legendre or Jacobi symbol of  $a$  modulo  $p$ .

Let  $p = 11$ . Then

- Is 4 a square modulo  $p$ ?

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**YES** because  $2^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$
- Is 5 a square modulo  $p$ ?

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- What is  $J_{11}(5)$ ?

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**YES** because  $4^2 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$
- What is  $J_{11}(5)$ ?  
It equals  $+1$



# The set of squares

We let

$$\begin{aligned}\text{QR}(\mathbf{Z}_p^*) &= \{a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^* : a \text{ is a square mod } p\} \\ &= \{a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^* : \exists b \in \mathbf{Z}_p^* \text{ such that } b^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}\}\end{aligned}$$

# Example

Let  $p = 11$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$a^2 \bmod 11$										

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$a^2 \bmod 11$	1	4	9	5	3	3	5	9	4	1

Then

$$\text{QR}(\mathbf{Z}_p^*) = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}$$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$J_{11}(a)$	1	-1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1

Observe

- There are 5 squares and 5 non-squares.
- Every square has exactly 2 square roots.

# Relation to discrete log

Recall that 2 is a generator of  $\mathbf{Z}_{11}^*$

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_{11}^*, 2}(a)$	0	1	8	2	4	9	7	3	6	5
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so

$$J_{11}(a) = 1 \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_{11}^*, 2}(a) \text{ is even}$$

This makes sense because for any generator  $g$ ,

$$g^{2j} = (g^j)^2$$

is always a square!

# Squares and discrete logs

**Fact:** If  $p \geq 3$  is a prime and  $g$  is a generator of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  then

$$\text{QR}(\mathbf{Z}_p^*) = \{g^i : 0 \leq i \leq p - 2 \text{ and } i \text{ is even}\}$$

**Example:** If  $p = 11$  and  $g = 2$  then  $p - 2 = 9$  and the squares are

- $2^0 \bmod 11 = 1$
- $2^2 \bmod 11 = 4$
- $2^4 \bmod 11 = 5$
- $2^6 \bmod 11 = 9$
- $2^8 \bmod 11 = 3$

# Computing the Legendre symbol

Is there an algorithm that given  $p$  and  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  returns  $J_p(a)$ , meaning determines whether or not  $a$  is a square mod  $p$ ?



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Sure!

**Alg** TEST-SQ( $p, a$ )

Let  $g$  be a generator of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$

Let  $i \leftarrow \text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_p^*, g}(a)$

if  $i$  is even then return 1 else return  $-1$

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This is correct, but

- How do we find  $g$ ?
- How do we compute  $\text{DLog}_{\mathbf{Z}_p^*, g}(a)$ ?

# Fermat's Theorem

**Fact:** If  $p \geq 3$  is a prime then for any  $a$

$$J_p(a) \equiv a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$$

**Example:** Let  $p = 11$ .

- Let  $a = 5$ . We know that 5 is a square, meaning  $J_{11}(5) = 1$ . Now compute

$$a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 5^5 \equiv (25)(25)(5) \equiv 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \equiv 45 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}.$$

- Let  $a = 6$ . We know that 6 is not a square, meaning  $J_{11}(6) = -1$ . Now compute

$$a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv 6^5 \equiv (36)(36)(6) \equiv 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 6 \equiv 54 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}.$$

# Fermat's Theorem

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This yields a cubic-time algorithm to compute the Legendre symbol, meaning determine whether or not a given number is a square:

**Alg** TEST-SQ( $p, a$ )

$s \leftarrow a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \pmod{p}$

if  $s = 1$  then return 1 else return  $-1$

# Multiplicity of Legendre symbol

**Fact:** If  $p \geq 3$  is a prime then for any  $a, b$

$$J_p(ab) = J_p(a) \cdot J_p(b)$$

**Example:** Let  $p = 11$ .

$a$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
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$a$	$b$	$ab$	$J_{11}(a)$	$J_{11}(b)$	$J_{11}(ab)$	$J_{11}(a) \cdot J_{11}(b)$
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$J_{11}(a)$	1	-1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1

$a$	$b$	$ab$	$J_{11}(a)$	$J_{11}(b)$	$J_{11}(ab)$	$J_{11}(a) \cdot J_{11}(b)$
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**Fact:** If  $p \geq 3$  is a prime then for any  $a \in \mathbf{Z}_p^*$

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$$\underline{\underline{a \mid a^{-1} \mid J_{11}(a) \mid J_{11}(a^{-1})}}$$

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## Legendre symbol of EG key

**Fact:** Let  $p \geq 3$  be a prime and  $x, y \in \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$ . Let  $X = g^x$  and  $Y = g^y$  and  $K = g^{xy}$ . Then

$$J_p(K) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } J_p(X) = 1 \text{ or } J_p(Y) = 1 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

In particular one can determine  $J_p(K)$  given  $J_p(X)$  and  $J_p(Y)$

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned} J_p(K) &= J_p(g^{xy}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } xy \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is even or } y \text{ is even} \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ &= \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } J_p(g^x) = 1 \text{ or } J_p(g^y) = 1 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

# EG modulo a prime

Let  $p$  be a prime and  $g$  a generator of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ . The EG PKE scheme  $\mathcal{AE}_{\text{EG}} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  is defined by

<b>Alg</b> $\mathcal{K}$ $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}$ $X \leftarrow g^x$ return $(X, x)$	<b>Alg</b> $\mathcal{E}_X(M)$ $y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}; Y \leftarrow g^y$ $K \leftarrow X^y$ $W \leftarrow K \cdot M$ return $(Y, W)$	<b>Alg</b> $\mathcal{D}_X(Y, W)$ $K = Y^x$ $M \leftarrow W \cdot K^{-1}$ return $M$
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**The weakness:** Suppose  $(Y, W) \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{E}_X(M)$ . Then we claim that given

- the public key  $X$
- the ciphertext  $(Y, W)$

an adversary can easily compute  $J_p(M)$ .

This represents a loss of partial information.

# EG modulo a prime

Suppose  $(Y, W)$  is an encryption of  $M$  under public key  $X = g^x$ , where  $Y = g^y$ . Then

- $W = K \cdot M$
- $K = g^{xy}$

So

$$\begin{aligned} J_p(M) &= J_p(W \cdot K^{-1}) = J_p(W) \cdot J_p(K^{-1}) = J_p(W) \cdot J_p(K) \\ &= J_p(W) \cdot s \end{aligned}$$

where  $s = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } J_p(X) = 1 \text{ or } J_p(Y) = 1 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

So we can compute  $J_p(M)$  via

**Alg** FIND-J( $X, Y, W$ )

if  $J_p(X) = 1$  or  $J_p(Y) = 1$  then  $s \leftarrow 1$  else  $s \leftarrow -1$

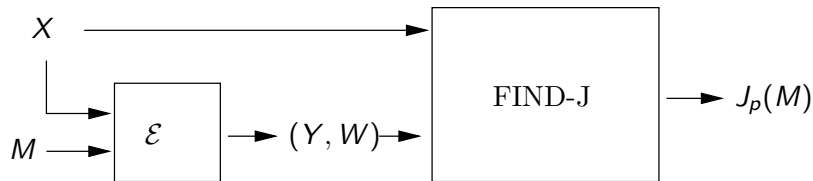
return  $J_p(W) \cdot s$

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**The weakness:** There is an algorithm FIND-J





# IND-CPA attack

Given public key  $X$

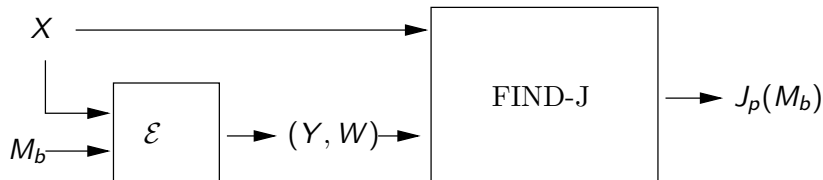
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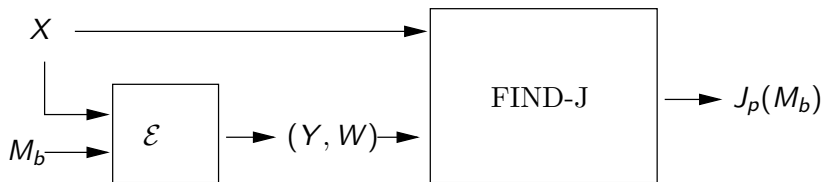
How? Use:



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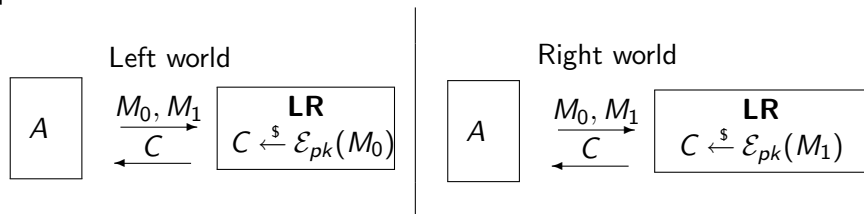
- Let  $M_0, M_1$  be such that  $J_p(M_0) = -1$  and  $J_p(M_1) = 1$
- Receive encryption  $(Y, W)$  of  $M_b$



- if  $\text{FIND-J}(X, Y, W) = 1$  then return 1 else return 0

# IND-CPA attack on EG

Let  $\mathcal{AE}_{EG} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  be the EG PKE scheme over  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  where  $p$  is a prime.



**adversary**  $A(X)$

$M_1 \leftarrow 1; M_0 \leftarrow g$

$(Y, W) \leftarrow^{\$} \mathbf{LR}(M_0, M_1)$

if  $\text{FIND-J}(X, Y, W) = 1$  then return 1 else return 0

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{AE}_{EG}, A}^{\text{ind-cpa}} &= \Pr \left[ \text{Right}_{\mathcal{AE}_{EG}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right] - \Pr \left[ \text{Left}_{\mathcal{AE}_{EG}}^A \Rightarrow 1 \right] \\ &= 1 - 0 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

# IND-CPA security of EG

We have seen that EG is not IND-CPA over groups  $G = \mathbf{Z}_p^*$  for prime  $p$ .

However it is IND-CPA secure over any group  $G$  where the DDH problem is hard.

This is not a contradiction because if  $p$  is prime then the DDH problem in  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  is easy even though DL, CDH seem to be hard.

We can in particular securely implement EG over

- Appropriate prime-order subgroups of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$  for a prime  $p$
- Elliptic curve groups of prime order

The  $\mathcal{AE}_{EG}$  asymmetric encryption scheme assumes that messages can be encoded as elements of the underlying group  $G$ . But

- Messages may be of large and varying lengths, but we want the group to be fixed beforehand and as small as possible
- For some groups this encoding is hard even if the messages are short

Asymmetric cryptography is **orders of magnitude slower** than symmetric cryptography

An exponentiation in a 160-bit elliptic curve group costs about the same as 3000-4000 hashes or block cipher operations

# Hybrid encryption

Build an asymmetric encryption scheme by **combining** symmetric and asymmetric techniques:

- Symmetrically encrypt data under a key  $K$
- Asymmetrically encrypt  $K$

## Benefits:

- Speed
- No encoding problems



Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group of order  $m$  and let  $sk = x$  and  $pk = X = g^x$  be  $\mathcal{AE}_{EG}$  keys.

**Alg**  $\mathcal{E}_X(M)$

$y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_{p-1}; Y \leftarrow g^y$

$K \leftarrow X^y$

$W \leftarrow K \cdot M$

return  $(Y, W)$

In EG, the “symmetric key” is  $K$  and it “symmetrically” encrypts  $M$  as  $W = K \cdot M$ .

Let the “symmetric key” be  $K = H(g^y \parallel g^{xy})$  rather than merely  $g^{xy}$ , where  $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  is a hash function.

Instead of  $K \cdot M$ , let  $W$  be an encryption of  $M$  under  $K$  with some known-secure symmetric scheme such as AES-CBC. In this case  $k = 128$  above.

Let  $G = \langle g \rangle$  be a cyclic group of order  $m$ ,  $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  a hash function, and  $\mathcal{SE} = (\mathcal{KS}, \mathcal{ES}, \mathcal{DS})$  a symmetric encryption scheme with  $k$ -bit keys. Then DHIES is  $(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  where

**Alg**  $\mathcal{K}$

$x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_m$

$X \leftarrow g^x$

return  $(X, x)$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{E}_X(M)$

$y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_m; Y \leftarrow g^y$

$Z \leftarrow X^y$

$K \leftarrow H(Y \parallel Z)$

$C_s \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{ES}_K(M)$

return  $(Y, C_s)$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{D}_x(Y, C_s)$

$Z \leftarrow Y^x$

$K \leftarrow H(Y \parallel Z)$

$M \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{DS}_K(C_s)$

return  $M$

ECIES is DHIES when  $G$  is an elliptic curve group.

<b>Operation</b>	<b>Cost</b>
encryption	2 160-bit exp
decryption	1 160-bit exp
ciphertext expansion	160-bits

ciphertext expansion = (length of ciphertext) - (length of plaintext)

Recall that  $\varphi(N) = |\mathbf{Z}_N^*|$ .

**Claim:** Suppose  $e, d \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  satisfy  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$ . Then for any  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_N^*$  we have

$$(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{N}$$

**Proof:**

$$(x^e)^d \equiv x^{ed \pmod{\varphi(N)}} \equiv x^1 \equiv x$$

modulo  $N$

# The RSA function

A modulus  $N$  and encryption exponent  $e$  define the RSA function  $f : \mathbf{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_N^*$  defined by

$$f(x) = x^e \pmod{N}$$

for all  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_N^*$ .

A value  $d \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  satisfying  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$  is called a decryption exponent.

**Claim:** The RSA function  $f : \mathbf{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_N^*$  is a permutation with inverse  $f^{-1} : \mathbf{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}_N^*$  given by

$$f^{-1}(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$$

**Proof:** For all  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_N^*$  we have

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) \equiv (x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{N}$$

by previous claim.

# Example

Let  $N = 15$ . So

$$\mathbf{Z}_N^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$$

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$$\varphi(N) = 8$$

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Let  $e = 3$  and  $d = 3$ . Then

$$ed \equiv 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$$

Let

$$f(x) = x^3 \pmod{15}$$

$$g(y) = y^3 \pmod{15}$$

$x$	$f(x)$	$g(f(x))$
1	1	
2	8	
4		
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Let  $e = 3$  and  $d = 3$ . Then

$$ed \equiv 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$$

Let

$$f(x) = x^3 \pmod{15}$$

$$g(y) = y^3 \pmod{15}$$

$x$	$f(x)$	$g(f(x))$
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4	4	
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# Example

Let  $N = 15$ . So

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- $pk = N, e; \quad sk = N, d$
- $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(x) = x^e \pmod N = f(x)$
- $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(y) = y^d \pmod N = f^{-1}(y)$

Security will rely on it being hard to compute  $f^{-1}$  without knowing  $d$ .

RSA is a trapdoor, one-way permutation:

- Easy to invert given trapdoor  $d$
- Hard to invert given only  $N, e$

An RSA generator with security parameter  $k$  is an algorithm  $\mathcal{K}_{rsa}$  that returns  $N, p, q, e, d$  satisfying

- $p, q$  are distinct odd primes
- $N = pq$  and is called the (RSA) modulus
- $|N| = k$ , meaning  $2^{k-1} \leq N \leq 2^k$
- $e \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  is called the encryption exponent
- $d \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  is called the decryption exponent
- $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$



- Building RSA generators
- Basic RSA security
- Encryption with RSA

## Some more math

**Fact:** If  $p, q$  are distinct primes and  $N = pq$  then  
 $\varphi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(N) &= |\{1, \dots, N - 1\}| - |\{ip : 1 \leq i \leq q - 1\}| - |\{iq : 1 \leq i \leq p - 1\}| \\ &= (N - 1) - (q - 1) - (p - 1) \\ &= N - p - q + 1 \\ &= pq - p - q + 1 \\ &= (p - 1)(q - 1)\end{aligned}$$

**Example:**

- $15 = 3 \cdot 5$
- $\mathbf{Z}_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
- $\varphi(15) = 8 = (3 - 1)(5 - 1)$

Given  $\varphi(N)$  and  $e \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$ , we can compute  $d \in \mathbf{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  satisfying  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$  via

$$d \leftarrow \text{MOD-INV}(e, \varphi(N)).$$

We have algorithms to efficiently test whether a number is prime, and a random number has a pretty good chance of being a prime.

# Building RSA generators

Say we wish to have  $e = 3$  (for efficiency). The generator  $\mathcal{K}_{rsa}^3$  with (even) security parameter  $k$ :

repeat

$p, q \xleftarrow{\$} \{2^{k/2-1}, \dots, 2^{k/2} - 1\}; N \leftarrow pq; M \leftarrow (p-1)(q-1)$

until

$N \geq 2^{k-1}$  and  $p, q$  are prime and  $\gcd(e, M) = 1$

$d \leftarrow \text{MOD-INV}(e, M)$

return  $N, p, q, e, d$

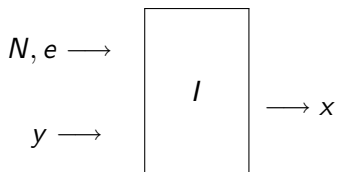
# One-wayness of RSA

The following should be hard:

**Given:**  $N, e, y$  where  $y = f(x) = x^e \pmod N$

**Find:**  $x$

Formalism picks  $x$  at random and generates  $N, e$  via an RSA generator.



wins if  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ , meaning  $x^e \equiv y \pmod{N}$ .

# One-wayness of RSA, formally

Let  $K_{rsa}$  be a RSA generator and  $I$  an adversary.

Game  $OW_{K_{rsa}}$

**procedure Initialize**

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} K_{rsa}$

$x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_N^*$ ;  $y \leftarrow x^e \pmod N$

return  $N, e, y$

**procedure Finalize**( $x'$ )

return  $(x = x')$

The ow-advantage of  $I$  is

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{K_{rsa}}^{\text{ow}}(I) = \Pr \left[ OW'_{K_{rsa}} \Rightarrow \text{true} \right]$$

# Inverting RSA

Inverting RSA : given  $N, e, y$  find  $x$  such that  $x^e \equiv y \pmod{N}$



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Inverting RSA : given  $N, e, y$  find  $x$  such that  $x^e \equiv y \pmod{N}$

↑  
EASY  
Know  $d$

because  $f^{-1}(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$

# Inverting RSA

Inverting RSA : given  $N, e, y$  find  $x$  such that  $x^e \equiv y \pmod{N}$



EASY

Know  $d$

because  $f^{-1}(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$



EASY

Know  $\varphi(N)$

because  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(N)}$

# Inverting RSA

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EASY

Know  $d$

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EASY

Know  $\varphi(N)$

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EASY

Know  $p, q$

because  $\varphi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

# Inverting RSA

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because  $f^{-1}(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$

Know  $d$



EASY

because  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(N)}$

Know  $\varphi(N)$



EASY

because  $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$

Know  $p, q$



?

Know  $N$

# Factoring Problem

**Given:**  $N$  where  $N = pq$  and  $p, q$  are prime

**Find:**  $p, q$

If we can factor we can invert RSA. We do not know whether the converse is true, meaning whether or not one can invert RSA without factoring.

# A factoring algorithm

```
Alg FACTOR( $N$ ) //  $N = pq$  where  $p, q$  are primes  
for  $i = 2, \dots, \lceil \sqrt{N} \rceil$  do  
  if  $N \bmod i = 0$  then  
     $p \leftarrow i; q \leftarrow N/i$ ; return  $p, q$ 
```

This algorithm works but takes time

$$\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{N}) = \mathcal{O}(e^{0.5 \ln N})$$

which is prohibitive.

# Factoring algorithms

<b>Algorithm</b>	<b>Time taken to factor <math>N</math></b>
Naive	$O(e^{0.5 \ln N})$
Quadratic Sieve (QS)	$O(e^{c(\ln N)^{1/2}(\ln \ln N)^{1/2}})$
Number Field Sieve (NFS)	$O(e^{1.92(\ln N)^{1/3}(\ln \ln N)^{2/3}})$

# Factoring records

<b>Number</b>	<b>bit-length</b>	<b>Factorization</b>	<b>alg</b>	<b>MIPS years</b>
RSA-400	400	1993	QS	830
RSA-428	428	1994	QS	5000
RSA-431	431	1996	NFS	1000
RSA-465	465	1999	NFS	2000
RSA-515	515	1999	NFS	8000
RSA-576	576	2003	NFS	



# How big is big enough?

**Current wisdom:** For 80-bit security, use a 1024 bit RSA modulus

**80-bit security:** Factoring takes  $2^{80}$  time.

Factorization of RSA-1024 seems out of reach at present.

Estimates vary, and for more security, longer moduli are recommended.

# RSA: what to remember

The RSA function  $f(x) = x^e \pmod N$  is a trapdoor one way permutation:

- Easy forward: given  $N, e, x$  it is easy to compute  $f(x)$
- Easy back with trapdoor: Given  $N, d$  and  $y = f(x)$  it is easy to compute  $x = f^{-1}(y) = y^d \pmod N$
- Hard back without trapdoor: Given  $N, e$  and  $y = f(x)$  it is hard to compute  $x = f^{-1}(y)$

# Plain-RSA encryption

The plain RSA asymmetric encryption scheme  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  associated to RSA generator  $K_{rsa}$  is

Alg $\mathcal{K}$		Alg $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(M)$		Alg $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(C)$
$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} K_{rsa}$		$C \leftarrow M^e \pmod N$		$M \leftarrow C^d \pmod N$
$pk \leftarrow (N, e)$		return $C$		return $M$
$sk \leftarrow (N, d)$				
return $(pk, sk)$				

The “easy-back with trapdoor” property implies

$$\mathcal{D}_{sk}(\mathcal{E}_{pk}(M)) = M$$

for all  $M \in \mathbf{Z}_N^*$ .

# Plain-RSA encryption security

Alg $\mathcal{K}$	Alg $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(M)$	Alg $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(C)$
$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} K_{rsa}$	$C \leftarrow M^e \pmod N$	$M \leftarrow C^d \pmod N$
$pk \leftarrow (N, e)$	return $C$	return $M$
$sk \leftarrow (N, d)$		
return $(pk, sk)$		

Getting  $sk$  from  $pk$  involves factoring  $N$ .

# Plain-RSA encryption security

Alg $\mathcal{K}$		
$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} K_{rsa}$	Alg $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(M)$	Alg $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(C)$
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$sk \leftarrow (N, d)$	return $C$	return $M$
return $(pk, sk)$		

Alg  $\mathcal{E}$  is deterministic so we can detect repeats and the scheme is not IND-CPA secure.

# A message recovery attack

Suppose sender encrypts  $M$  and  $M + 1$  under public key  $N, 3$ . Adversary has

$$C_1 = M^3 \pmod N \text{ and } C_2 = (M + 1)^3 \pmod N$$

Then modulo  $N$  we have

$$\frac{C_2 + 2C_1 - 1}{C_2 - C_1 + 2} =$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \frac{C_2 + 2C_1 - 1}{C_2 - C_1 + 2} &= \frac{(M + 1)^3 + 2M^3 - 1}{(M + 1)^3 - M^3 + 2} \\ &= \end{aligned}$$

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so adversary can recover  $M$ .

# The SRSA scheme

Encrypt  $M$  under  $pk = N, e$  via:

- $x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_N^*$ ;  $C_a \leftarrow x^e \bmod N$ ;
- $K \leftarrow H(x)$
- Let  $C_s$  be a symmetric encryption of  $M$  under  $K$
- Ciphertext is  $(C_a, C_s)$

Decrypt  $(C_a, C_s)$  under  $sk = N, d$  via:

- $x \leftarrow C_a^d \bmod N$
- $K \leftarrow H(x)$
- Decrypt  $C_s$  under  $K$  to get  $M$

# The SRSA scheme

Let  $\mathcal{SE} = (\mathcal{KS}, \mathcal{ES}, \mathcal{DS})$  be a symmetric encryption scheme with  $k$ -bit keys, and  $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  a hash function.

**Example:**  $\mathcal{SE}$  could be AES CBC encryption in which case  $k = 128$ .

The SRSA asymmetric encryption scheme  $\mathcal{AE} = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  associated to RSA generator  $K_{rsa}$  is

**Alg**  $\mathcal{K}$

$(N, p, q, e, d) \xleftarrow{\$} K_{rsa}$

$pk \leftarrow (N, e)$

$sk \leftarrow (N, d)$

return  $(pk, sk)$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{E}_{N,e}(M)$

$x \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbf{Z}_N^*$

$K \leftarrow H(x)$

$C_a \leftarrow x^e \bmod N$

$C_s \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{ES}_K(M)$

return  $(C_a, C_s)$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{E}_{N,d}(C_a, C_s)$

$x \leftarrow C_a^d \bmod N$

$K \leftarrow H(x)$

$M \leftarrow \mathcal{DS}_K(C_s)$

return  $M$

Receiver keys:  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$  where  $n = |N|_8 = 128$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{E}_{N,e}(M)$  //  $m = |M|_8 \leq n - 11$

$Pad \xleftarrow{\$} (\{0, 1\}^8 - \{00\})^{n-m-3}$

$x \leftarrow 00 || 02 || Pad || 00 || M$

$C \leftarrow x^e \bmod N$

**return**  $C$

**Alg**  $\mathcal{D}_{N,d}(C)$  //  $C \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$

$x \leftarrow C^d \bmod N$

$aa || bb || w \leftarrow x$

**if**  $aa \neq 00$  or  $bb \neq 02$  or  $00 \notin w$  **then**

**return**  $\perp$

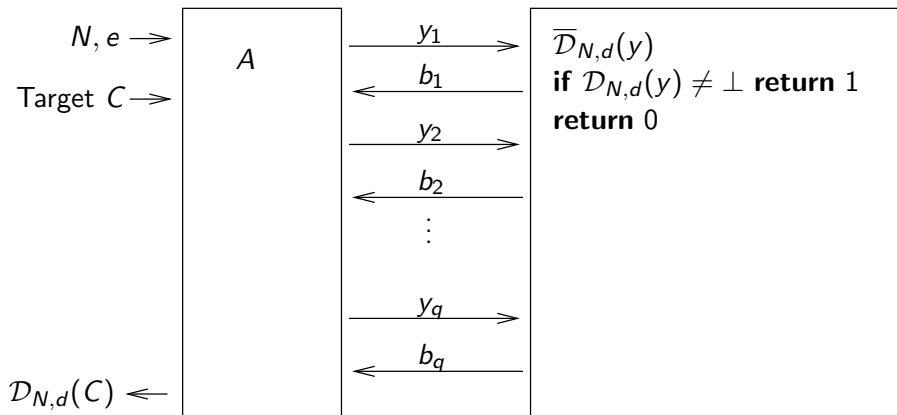
$Pad || 00 || M \leftarrow w$  where  $00 \notin Pad$

**return**  $M$

$x =$ 

00	02	Pad	00	M
----	----	-----	----	---

# Attack on PKCS #1 [BI98]



The attack  $A$  succeeds in decrypting  $C$  after making  $q \approx 1$  million clever queries to the box.

# Attack on PKCS #1 and response

This is a (limited) chosen-ciphertext attack in which the oracle does not fully decrypt but indicates whether or not the decryption is valid.

The attack can be mounted on SSL.

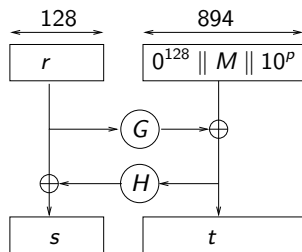
Use of an IND-CCA scheme would prevent the attack.

Receiver keys:  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $sk = (N, d)$  where  $|N| = 1024$

Hash functions:  $G: \{0, 1\}^{128} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{894}$  and  $H: \{0, 1\}^{894} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{128}$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{E}_{N,e}(M)$  //  $|M| \leq 765$

$r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{128}; p \leftarrow 765 - |M|$



$x \leftarrow s || t$

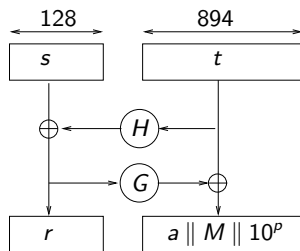
$C \leftarrow x^e \bmod N$

return  $C$

**Algorithm**  $\mathcal{D}_{N,d}(C)$  //  $C \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$

$x \leftarrow C^d \bmod N$

$s || t \leftarrow x$



if  $a = 0^{128}$  then return  $M$

else return  $\perp$



## Protocols:

- SSL ver. 2.0, 3.0 / TLS ver. 1.0, 1.1
- SSH ver 1.0, 2.0
- ...

## Standards:

- RSA PKCS #1 versions 1.5, 2.0
- IEEE P1363
- NESSIE (Europe)
- CRYPTREC (Japan)
- ...