Public Key Cryptography



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Outline





Course main reference



- Any integer *n* can be decomposed uniquely as a product of prime numbers.
- There are infinitely many primes.
- **Prime Number Theorem**: the number of primes up to some bound *B* is roughly equal to $B/\log B$.
- **Bertrand's postulate**: For any n > 1, the fraction of the *n*-bit integers that are prime is at least 1/3n.

- Given an integer *n*, decide whether *n* is prime or not.
- There are deterministic algorithms for primality testing (see AKS test).
- In practice, we use probabilistic algorithms (having a small probability to return prime for composite numbers) that are much faster.

You can generate primes by picking random numbers smaller than B and checking whether they are prime: need about $\log B$ trials by the prime number theorem. More formally,

Algorithm

```
Input: Length n, parameter t

For i = 1 to t:

p' \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{n-1}

p := 1 || p'

if Primality_test (p) = 1 return p

return fail
```

Generating Random Primes

- Remember that for any *n* > 1, the fraction of the *n*-bit integers that are prime is at least 1/3*n*.
- Now, set $t = 3n^2$, then the probability of the previous algorithm to not output a prime in *t* iteration is

$$(1 - \frac{1}{3n})^t = \left((1 - \frac{1}{3n})^{3n}\right)^n \le (e^{-1})^n = e^{-n}$$

- This probability is negligible in *n* if we have a number of iterations that is polynomial in *n*.
- We still need to study the algorithms that test numbers primality!

- Observation: if *n* is prime then *aⁿ⁻¹* = 1 mod *n* for all *a* (Fermat's little theorem)
- Idea: choose random *a* and check whether $a^{n-1} = 1 \mod n$. If not then *n* is composite.
- We define a *witness* that *n* is composite any $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, s.t. $a^{n-1} \neq 1 \mod n$.

Algorithm

Input: Integer *n* and parameter 1^t for i = 1 to t $a \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n-1\}$ if $a^{n-1} \neq 1 \mod n$ return "composite" return "prime"

Theorem

If *n* has a witness that it is composite, then $|\{\text{witnesses}\}_n| \geq |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|/2$

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Carmichael numbers: are composite and pass this test for all 0 < a < n, i.e. they don't have any witnesses. Solution?

- We have just seen that Carmichael numbers don't have any witnesses!
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- What about $a^u, a^{2u}, \cdots, a^{2^{k-1}u}$?
- Strong witness: $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ is a strong witness that n is composite if

◦
$$a^u \neq \pm 1 \mod n$$
 and
◦ $a^{2^i u} \neq -1$ for all $i \in \{1, \cdots, k-1\}$

• If *n* is prime, then *n* doesn't have any strong witness that it is composite. More formally,

Theorem

Let *n* be an odd number that is not a prime power, then we have that at least half of the elements of \mathbb{Z}_n^* are strong witnesses that *n* is composite.

Algorithm

Input: Integer n > 2 and parameter 1^t If n is even, return "composite" If n is a perfect power, return "composite" ^a Write $n - 1 = 2^k u$ where u is odd and $k \ge 1$ for j = 1 to t $a \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n - 1\}$ if $a^u \ne \pm 1 \mod n$ and $a^{2^i u} \ne -1 \mod n$ for $i \in \{1, \dots, k - 1\}$ return "composite" return "prime"

^aExercise: Show that this test can be done in polynomial time

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If p is prime, then the Miller-Rabin test always outputs "prime. If p is composite, the algorithm outputs "composite" except with probability at most 2^{-t}

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Theorem

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(Exercise-1) Show that the Miller-Rabin algorithm runs in time polynomial in |p| and t. (Exercise-2) Compare its running time to the (deterministic) AKS' running time.

Outline







Public Key Cryptosystems

An asymmetric encryption scheme consists of the following algorithms:

- KeyGen(1^{*n*}): is a randomized algorithm that takes the security parameters as input and returns a pair of keys (PK, SK), the public key PK and its matching secret key SK, respectively.
- Enc(PK, *m*): A randomized algorithm that takes a public key PK, a plaintext *m* and returns a ciphertext *c*.
- Dec(SK, *c*): A deterministic algorithm that takes the secret key SK and a ciphertext *c*, and returns a message $m \in \mathcal{M} \cup \bot$.

Correctness:

 $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}, \Pr[(\mathsf{SK},\mathsf{PK}) \leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(n) : \mathsf{Dec}(\mathsf{Enc}(\mathsf{PK},m),\mathsf{SK}) = m] = 1$

CPA Indistinguishability Experiment PubK^{cpa}_{A,E}

 $\begin{array}{c|c} \textbf{Challenger Ch} & \textbf{Adversary A} \\ \mathsf{PK},\mathsf{SK} \leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(n) & & \\ & \swarrow^{m_0,m_1,|m_0|=|m_1|} \\ b \leftarrow \{0,1\} & & \\ & \xrightarrow{c=\mathsf{Enc}(\mathsf{PK},m_b)} \text{Outputs his guess } b' \end{array}$

Definition

An encryption scheme is CPA-secure if for all efficient \mathcal{A} the following holds:

$$\mathsf{Adv}_{\mathcal{A},E}^{\mathsf{cpa}}(n) = \Pr[\mathsf{PubK}_{\mathcal{A},E}^{\mathsf{cpa}}(n) = 1] - 1/2 = \mathsf{negl}(n)$$

Where $\text{PubK}_{\mathcal{A},E}^{\text{cpa}}(n) = 1$ if b' = b, and 0 otherwise.

CCA Indistinguishability Experiment PubK^{cca}_{A,E}

 $\begin{array}{c|c} \textbf{Challenger Ch} & \textbf{Adversary A} \\ \mathsf{PK},\mathsf{SK} = \mathsf{KeyGen}(n) & \texttt{Access to the oracle Dec}(\mathsf{SK}, \cdot) \\ & \swarrow^{m_0,m_1,|m_0|=|m_1|} \\ b \leftarrow \{0,1\} & & \\ & \xrightarrow{c = \mathsf{Enc}(\mathsf{PK},m_b)} \\ & & \texttt{Access to the oracle Dec}(\mathsf{SK}, \cdot)^c \\ & & \mathsf{Outputs his guess } b' \end{array}$

Definition

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Dealing with arbitrary-length messages

Theorem

If a public-key encryption scheme is CPA-secure, then it also has indistinguishable multiple encryptions, where the adversary is allowed to send two lists of messages to be challenged on instead of sending a pair of messages.

 As a consequence, any CPA-secure public-key encryption scheme for fixed-length messages (down to one bit!) can be used as a public key-encryption scheme for arbitrary-length messages.

Hybrid Encryption

- A better approach to deal with arbitrary-length messages.
- We will use a private-key encryption scheme along with a public-key encryption scheme.
- Remember that private-key encryption scheme are significantly faster than public ones.
- We call this approach the *key-encapsulation mechanism* and *data-encapsulation mechanism* (KEM/DEM).

An key-encapsulation mechanism scheme (KEM) consists of the following PPT algorithms:

- KeyGen(1^{*n*}): takes the security parameter as input and returns a pair of keys (PK, SK), the public key PK and its matching secret key SK, respectively, each of length *n*.
- Encaps(PK, 1^n): it returns a ciphertext c and a key $k \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(n)}$.
- Decaps(SK, *c*): A deterministic algorithm that takes a secret key SK and a ciphertext *c*, and returns a key *k* or ⊥.

Hybrid Encryption

An hybrid encryption scheme consists of a KEM scheme and a private-key encryption scheme:

- KeyGen^{hy}(1ⁿ): is a randomized algorithm that takes the security parameters as input and returns a pair of keys (PK, SK).
- Enc^{hy}(PK, m ∈ {0,1}*): takes a public key PK, a plaintext m and does the following:
 - compute $(c,k) \leftarrow \text{Encaps}(\mathsf{PK},1^n)$.
 - compute $c' \leftarrow \mathsf{Enc}(k,m)$.
 - output the ciphertext (c, c').
- $\text{Dec}^{hy}(\text{SK}, (c, c'))$: takes a secret key SK and a ciphertext (c, c') and does the following:
 - $k \leftarrow \mathsf{Decaps}(\mathsf{SK}, c).$
 - output $m \leftarrow \mathsf{Dec}(k, c')$.

Hybrid Encryption: Efficiency

• Fix *n*. Let $\alpha = \text{cost}(\text{Encaps}(1^n))$ and $\beta = \text{cost}(\text{Enc}(1 \text{ bit}))$. Then

$$cost(Enc^{hy}(1 \text{ bit})) = \frac{\alpha + \beta \cdot |m|}{|m|} = \frac{\alpha}{|m|} + \beta$$

For sufficiently large *m*, cost(Enc^{hy}(1 bit)) → β. In other words, cost(Enc^{hy}(1 bit)) ≈ cost(Enc(1 bit)), which is the cost of encrypting one bit using a private-key encryption scheme!

Security of KEM

Intuitively speaking, for a KEM to be CPA secure, we require the encapsulated key to be indistinguishable from a uniform key that is independent of the ciphertext.

Experiment

- Run KeyGen(1ⁿ) to get (PK, SK), then run Encaps(PK, 1ⁿ) to generate (c, k) where k ∈ {0, 1}ⁿ.
- Choose random b ∈ {0,1}, if b = 0 set k̄ := k, otherwise choose k̄ uniformly at random from {0,1}ⁿ.
- Give the adversary A the tuple (PK, c, k), he should output a bit b'.
- Experiment output: 1 if b' = b and 0 otherwise.

Theorem

The hybrid encryption scheme is a CPA-secure public-key encryption scheme if KEM is CPA secure and the private-key encryption scheme has indistinguishable encryptions in the presence of an eavesdropper.

Let $k \leftarrow \text{Encaps}(1^n)$ and $k' \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$

 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_0))$

 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_1))$

 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_0)) \iff (pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_1))$

PrivEnc is secure



 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_0)) \iff (pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_1))$

PrivEnc is secure

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 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k, m_1))$



 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_0)) \iff (pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_1))$

PrivEnc is secure

 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k, m_0))$

KEM is CPA secure

 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k, m_1))$



 $(pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_0)) \iff (pk, Encaps(pk, 1^n), Enc(k', m_1))$

 \approx

PrivEnc is secure

We need to prove the following:

$$\Pr[\mathsf{PubK}^{eav}_{\mathcal{A}^{hy},S^{hy}}(n) = 1] \le \frac{1}{2} + \mathsf{negl}(n)$$

Whereas, by definition of the security experiment, we have

$$\Pr[\mathsf{PubK}^{eav}_{\mathcal{A}^{hy},S^{hy}}(n) = 1] = \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\mathcal{A}^{hy} \text{ outputs } \mathbf{0} | \bar{k} = k, m = m_0] \\ + \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\mathcal{A}^{hy} \text{ outputs } \mathbf{1} | \bar{k} = k, m = m_1]$$



 $\begin{aligned} &\Pr[A_1's \ output = 0 | b = 0] = \Pr[A^{hy'}s \ output = 0 | \overline{k} = k, m = m_0] \\ &\Pr[A_1's \ output = 1 | b = 1] = \Pr[A^{hy'}s \ output = 1 | \overline{k} = k', m = m_0] \end{aligned}$



 $\Pr[A_2's \ output = 0|b = 0] = \Pr[A^{hy'}s \ output = 1|\overline{k} = k, m = m_1]$ $\Pr[A_2's \ output = 1|b = 1] = \Pr[A^{hy'}s \ output = 0|\overline{k} = k', m = m_1]$



Theorem

The hybrid encryption scheme is a CCA-secure public-key encryption scheme if KEM is CCA secure and the private-key encryption scheme is CCA-secure.

Outline





RSA Encryption Scheme

- Designed by Rivest-Shamir-Adleman in 1977
- It is widely in use today. There is also the RSA digital signature scheme.
- Security of both *relies* on the fact that integer factorization is a hard computational problem.

Pseudorandom Permutations from One Way Functions

- Informally speaking, *one-way functions* are easy to compute, hard to invert!
- · We don't know how to prove that one-way functions exist!
- Assuming the hardness of some problems, we can build one-way functions.

Corollary

Let n > 1, and for e > 0 define $f_e : \mathbb{Z}_n^* \to \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ by $f_e(x) = x^e \mod n$. If $GCD(e, \phi(n)) = 1$, then f_e is a permutation. The inverse of f_e is f_d where $d = e^{-1} \mod \phi(n)$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

• If
$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_i^{e_i}$$
 then the map

$$f: \mathbb{Z}_n \to \prod_{i=1}^N \mathbb{Z}_{p_i^{e_i}}: x \to (x \mod p_1^{e_1}, \dots, x \mod p_N^{e_N})$$

is a ring isomorphism

• In other words given all residue values, there exists a unique value that corresponds to them modulo *n*

Euler's theorem

• Let
$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_i^{e_i}$$
 where the p_i are distinct primes

 The Euler totient function \(\phi(n)\) is the number of positive integers less than or equal to n that are relatively prime to n, more formally,

$$\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} (p_i - 1) p_i^{e_i - 1}$$

• Then for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, we have

$$x^{\phi(n)} = 1 \bmod n$$

- If n = p a prime, then $\phi(n) = p 1$ and we recover Fermat's little theorem $x^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$
- If n = pq like in RSA, then $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$

Plain RSA encryption algorithm

- Let *p*, *q* two distinct odd primes, and let *n* = *pq*
- Compute $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$, and choose e > 1 s.t. $gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- Public key is (n, e) and private key is (p, q)
- Given private key, can also compute $d := e^{-1} \mod \phi(n)$
- Encryption of $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$: $c = m^e \mod n$
- Decryption of $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$: $m' = c^d \mod n$
- Correctness follows from

$$m' = (m^e)^d = m^{ed \mod \phi(n)} = m \mod n$$

by Euler's theorem

RSA security

- Solving the factorization problem is sufficient and necessary to reconstruct the private key
- Solving the factorization problem *might not be necessary* for other goals, such as decrypting without the private key
- In fact, "Plain RSA" is insecure!
 - What if *m* is not chosen uniformly from \mathbb{Z}_n^* ?
 - Plain RSA is deterministic!
 - Therefore, it is not CPA-secure!

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