### Course Business

- Homework 5 Released
- Bonus Problem (10 Points)

### Homework 4 Statistics

Minimum Value	26.00
Maximum Value	110.00
Range	84.00
Average	86.16
Median	90.00
Standard Deviation	19.18

# Cryptography CS 555

### **Week 14:**

- Digital Signatures Continued
- Multiparty Computation
- Yao's Garbled Circuits

Readings: Katz and Lindell Chapter 10 & Chapter 11.1-11.2, 11.4

Fall 2017

## Plain RSA Signatures

- Plain RSA
- Public Key (pk): N = pq, e such that  $GCD(e, \phi(N)) = 1$ 
  - $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$  for distinct primes p and q
- Secret Key (sk): N, d such that ed=1 mod  $\phi(N)$

$$\begin{aligned} \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) &= m^d \ mod \ N \\ \operatorname{Vrfy}_{pk}(m,\sigma) &= \begin{cases} 1 & if \ m = [\sigma^e \ mod \ N] \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Verification Works because

$$\left[\mathbf{Sign}_{sk}(m)^e \bmod \mathbf{N}\right] = \left[m^{ed} \bmod \mathbf{N}\right] = \left[m^{\left[ed \bmod \phi(\mathbf{N})\right]} \bmod \mathbf{N}\right] = m$$

# No Message Attack

- Goal: Generate a forgery using only the public key
  - No intercepted signatures required
- Public Key (pk): N = pq, e such that  $GCD(e, \phi(N)) = 1$ 
  - $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$  for distinct primes p and q
- Pick random  $\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$
- Set  $m = [\sigma^e \mod N]$ .
- Output  $(m, \sigma)$

$$\operatorname{Vrfy}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ m = [\sigma^e \ mod \ N] \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

### RSA-FDH

- Full Domain Hash:  $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
- Given a message  $m \in \{0,1\}^*$  $\sigma = \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) = H(m)^d \bmod N$

**Theorem 12.7:** RSA-FDH is a secure signature scheme assuming that the RSA-Inversion problem is hard and H is modeled as a random oracle.

**Remark:** The domain of H (e.g.,SHA3) may be shorter than  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .

**Solution:** Repeated application of H.

### RSA-FDH

- Full Domain Hash:  $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
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**Theorem 12.7:** RSA-FDH is a secure signature scheme assuming that the RSA-Inversion problem is hard and H is modeled as a random oracle.

**Proof Sketch:** Given an RSA-Inversion challenge  $c = r^e \mod N$  we will program the value  $H(m) = c \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  into the random oracle to trick the signature attacker into revealing  $\operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) = r^{ed} = r \mod N$ .



**DSA:**  $\langle g \rangle$  is subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order q

**ECDSA:**  $\langle g \rangle$  is order q subgroup of elliptic curve

- Secret key is x, public key is h=g<sup>x</sup> along with generator g (of order q)
- Sign<sub>sk</sub>(m)
  - Pick random  $(k \in \mathbb{Z}_q)$  and set  $r = F(g^k) = [g^k \mod q]$
  - Compute  $s := [k^{-1}(xr + H(m)) \mod q]$
  - Output signature (r,s)
- Vrfy<sub>pk</sub>(m,(r,s)) check to make sure that

$$r = F(g^{H(m)s^{-1}}h^{rs^{-1}})$$

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$$r = F(g^{H(m)s^{-1}}h^{rs^{-1}})$$

$$= F(g^{H(m)k(xr+H(m))^{-1}}g^{xrk(xr+H(m))^{-1}})$$

$$= F(g^{(H(m)+xr)k(xr+H(m))^{-1}})$$

$$= F(g^k) := r$$



- Secret key is x, public key is h=g<sup>x</sup> along with generator g (of order q)
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$$r = F\left(g^{H(m)s^{-1}}h^{rs^{-1}}\right)$$

**Theorem:** If H and F are modeled as random oracles then DSA is secure.

Weird Assumption?

- Theory: DSA Still lack compelling proof of security from standard crypto assumptions
- **Practice:** DSA has been used/studied for decades without attacks



- Secret key is x, public key is h=g<sup>x</sup>
- Sign<sub>sk</sub>(m)
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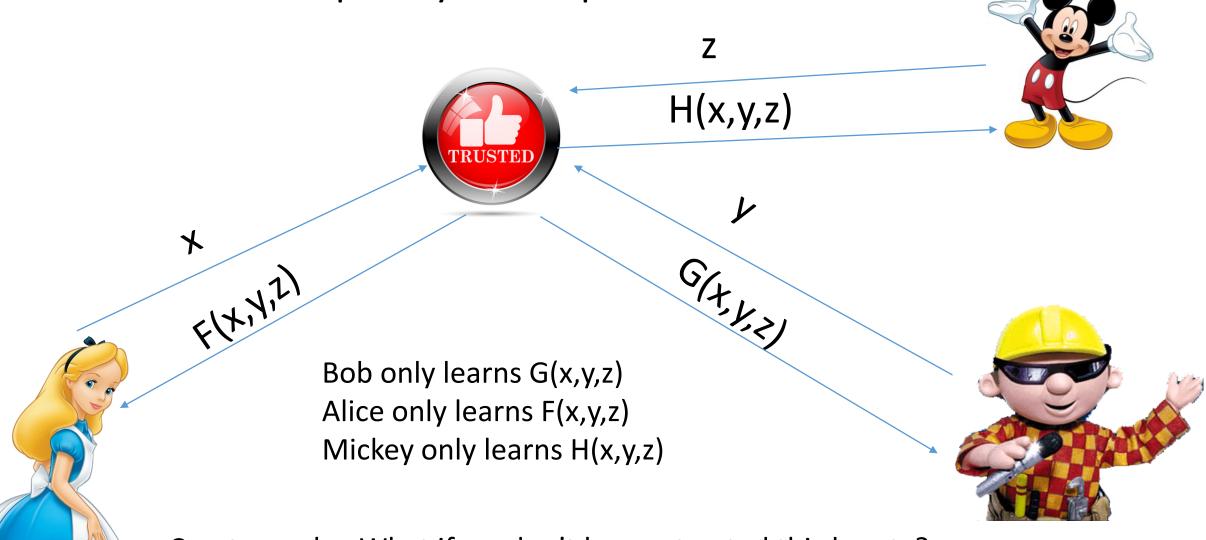
**Remark:** If signer signs two messages with same random  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  then attacker can find secret key sk!

- Theory: Shouldn't happen
- Practice: Will happen if a weak PRG is used
- Sony PlayStation (PS3) hack in 2010.

# Certificate Authority

- Trusted Authority (CA)
  - $m_{CA \to Amazon}$ ="Amazon's public key is  $pk_{Amazon}$  (date, expiration, ###)"
  - $cert_{CA \to Amazon} = Sign_{SK_{CA}}(m)$
- Delegate Authority to other CA<sub>1</sub>
  - Root CA signs m= "CA<sub>1</sub> public key is  $pk_{CA1}$  (date, expiration, ###) can issue certificates"
  - Verifier can check entire certification chain
- Revocation List Signed Daily
- Decentralized Web of Trust (PGP)

# Secure Multiparty Computation



Cryptography: What if we don't have a trusted third party?

# Secure Multiparty Computation (Crushes)



H(x,y,z)="no match"



F(X,Y,Z)="match Bob" G(x, X, Z)="match Alice"

Bob only learns G(x,y,z) Alice only learns F(x,y,z) Mickey only learns H(x,y,z)

Alice can infer Y from F(x,y,z) and Bob can infer X from H(x,y,z). But Alice/Bob cannot infer anything about Z.

Mickey cannot infer y, and learns that  $x \neq$  "Mickey"



# Secure Multiparty Computation (Crushoc)

W="Bob"

Natch Bob o Alice o Micke,

**Key Point:** The output H(x,y,z) may leak info about inputs. Thus, we cannot prevent Mickey from learning anything about x,y but Mickey should not learn anything else besides H(x,y,z)!

Though Question: How can we formalize this property?

# Adversary Models

- Semi-Honest ("honest, but curious")
  - All parties follow protocol instructions, but...
  - dishonest parties may be curious to violate privacy of others when possible
- Fully Malicious Model
  - Adversarial Parties may deviate from the protocol arbitrarily
    - Quit unexpectedly
    - Send different messages
  - It is much harder to achieve security in the fully malicious model
- Convert Secure Semi-Honest Protocol into Secure Protocol in Fully Malicious Mode?
  - Tool: Zero-Knowledge Proofs

# Computational Indistinguishability

**Definition**: We say that an ensemble of distributions  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $\{Y_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  are <u>computationally indistinguishable</u> if for all PPT distinguishers D, there is a negligible function negl(n), such that we have

$$Adv_{D,n} = \left| Pr_{s \leftarrow \mathsf{X}_{\ell}}[D(s) = 1] - Pr_{s \leftarrow \mathsf{Y}_{\ell}}[D(s) = 1] \right| \le negl(n)$$

**Notation**:  $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \equiv_{\mathcal{C}} \{Y_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  means that the ensembles are computationally indistinguishable.

# Security (Semi-Honest Model)

- Let  $B_n = trans_B(n, x, y)$  (resp.  $A_n = trans_A(n, x, y)$ ) be the protocol transcript from Bob's perspective (resp. Alice's perspective) when his input is y and Alice's input is x (assuming that Alice follows the protocol).
- **Security**: Assuming that Alice and Bob are both semi-honest (follow the protocol) then there exist PPT simulators  $S_A$  and  $S_B$  s.t.

$$\{A_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \equiv_C \{S_A(n,x,f_A(x,y))\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$$

$$\{B_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \equiv_C \{S_B(n,y,f_B(x,y))\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$$

• **Remark**: Simulator  $S_A$  is only shown Alice's input y and Alice's output  $f_A(x,y)$  (similarly,  $S_B$  is only shown Bob's input x and Bob's output  $f_B(x,y)$ )

# Oblivious Transfer (OT)

- 1 out of 2 OT
  - Alice has two messages m<sub>0</sub> and m<sub>1</sub>
  - At the end of the protocol
    - Bob gets exactly one of m<sub>0</sub> and m<sub>1</sub>
    - Alice does not know which one
- Oblivious Transfer with a Trusted Third Party

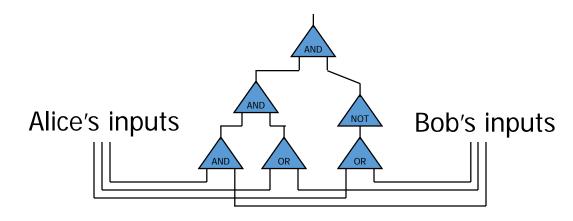


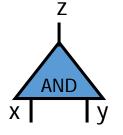
# Yao's Protocol

Vitaly Shmatikov

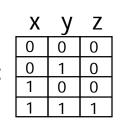
### Yao's Protocol

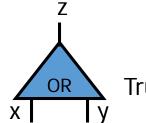
- Compute any function securely
  - ... in the semi-honest model
- First, convert the function into a boolean circuit





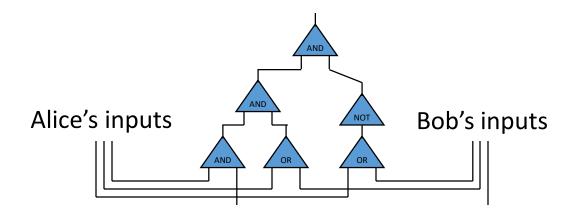
Truth table:





Truth table:

Χ	У	Z
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1



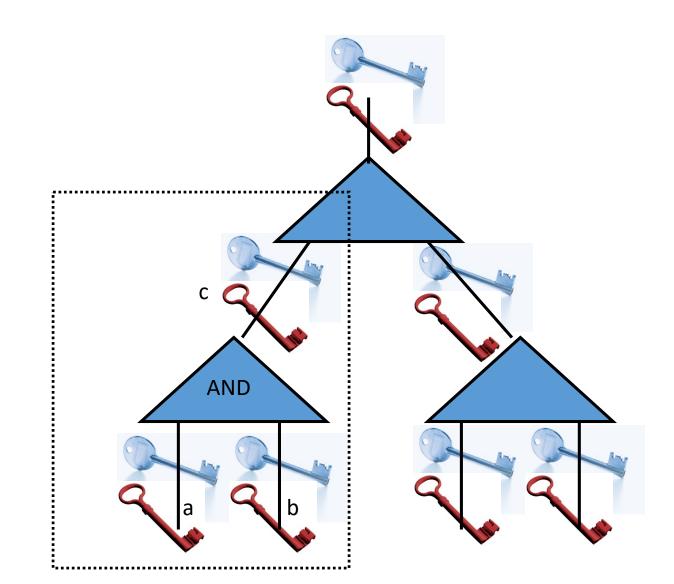
#### Overview:

- 1. Alice prepares "garbled" version C' of C
- 2. Sends "encrypted" form x' of her input x
- 3. Allows Bob to obtain "encrypted" form y' of his input y via OT
- 4. Bob can compute from C',x',y' the "encryption" z' of z=C(x,y)
- 5. Bob sends z' to Alice and she decrypts and reveals to him z

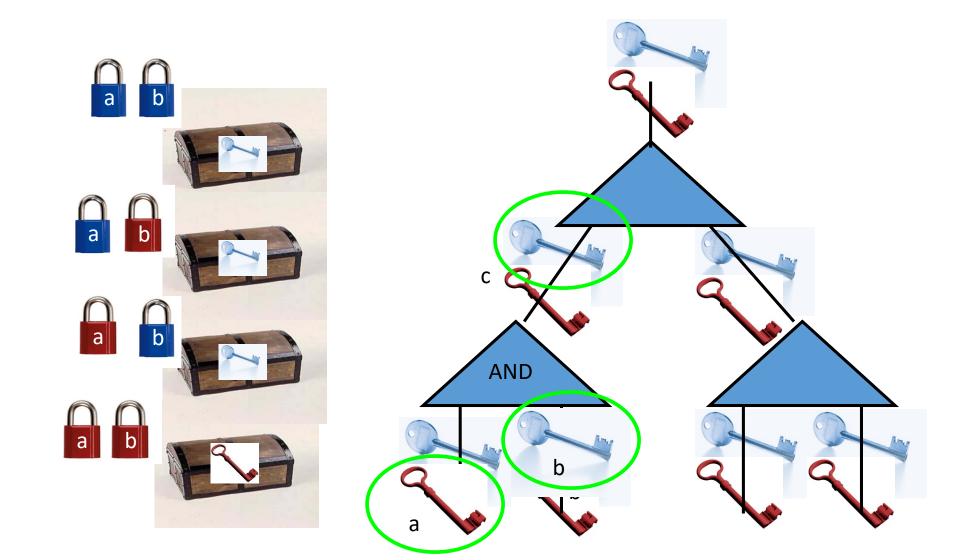
### **Crucial properties:**

- Bob never sees Alice's input x in unencrypted form.
- 2. Bob can obtain encryption of y without Alice learning y.
- 3. Neither party learns intermediate values.
- 4. Remains secure even if parties try to cheat.

# Intuition

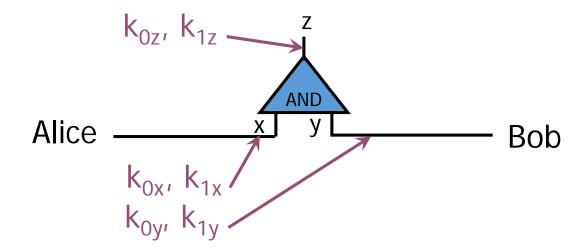


# Intuition



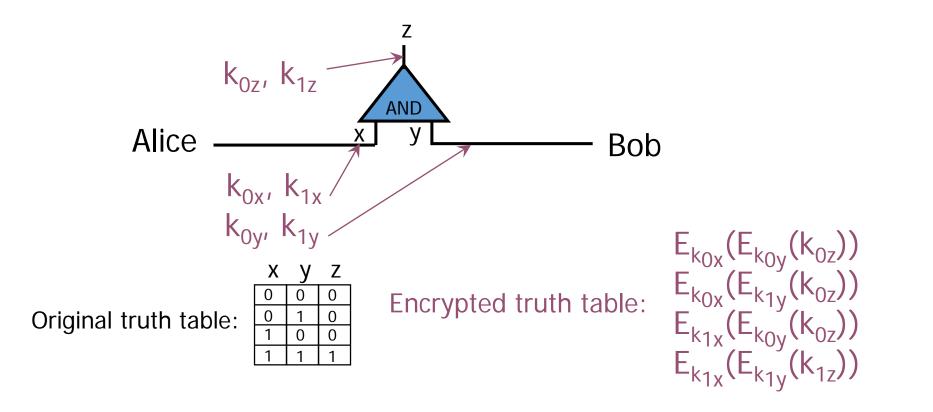
## 1: Pick Random Keys For Each Wire

- Next, evaluate one gate securely
  - Later, generalize to the entire circuit
- Alice picks two random keys for each wire
  - One key corresponds to "0", the other to "1"
  - 6 keys in total for a gate with 2 input wires



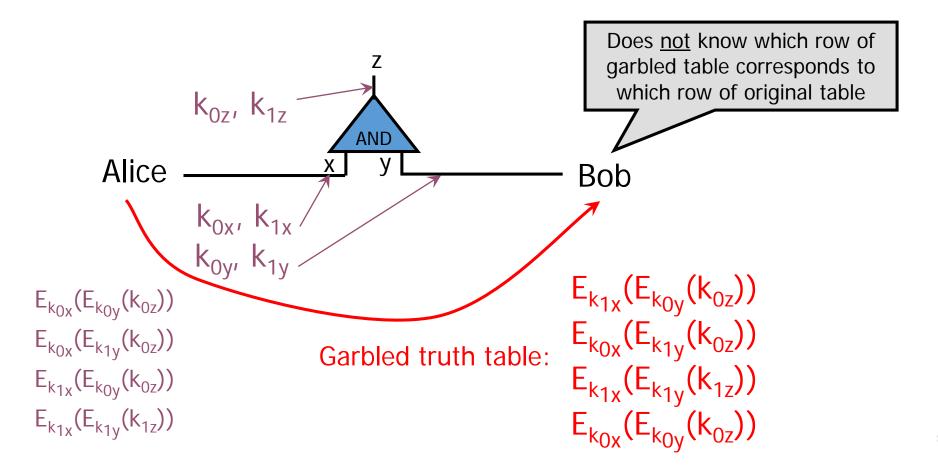
# 2: Encrypt Truth Table

 Alice encrypts each row of the truth table by encrypting the output-wire key with the corresponding pair of input-wire keys



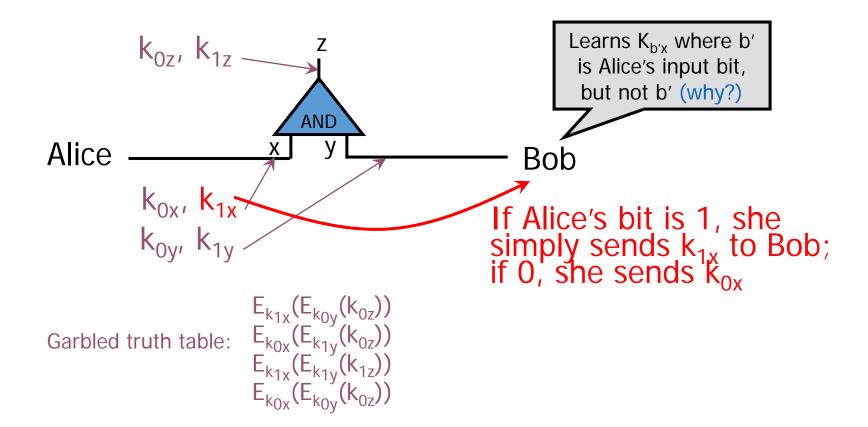
### 3: Send Garbled Truth Table

 Alice randomly permutes ("garbles") encrypted truth table and sends it to Bob



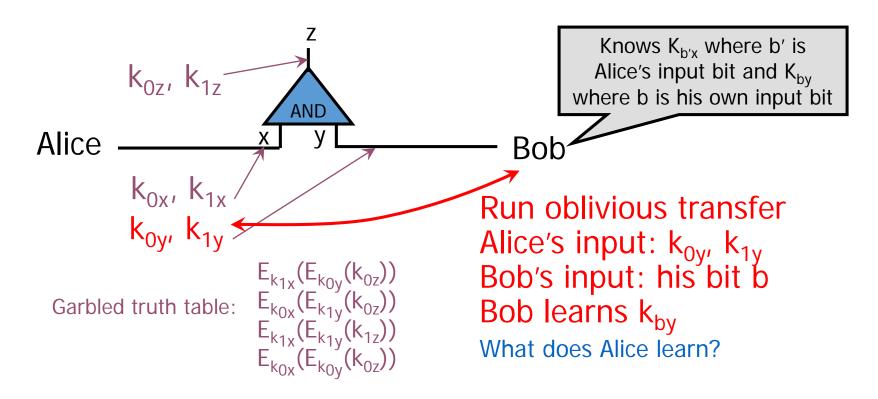
# 4: Send Keys For Alice's Inputs

- Alice sends the key corresponding to her input bit
  - Keys are random, so Bob does not learn what this bit is



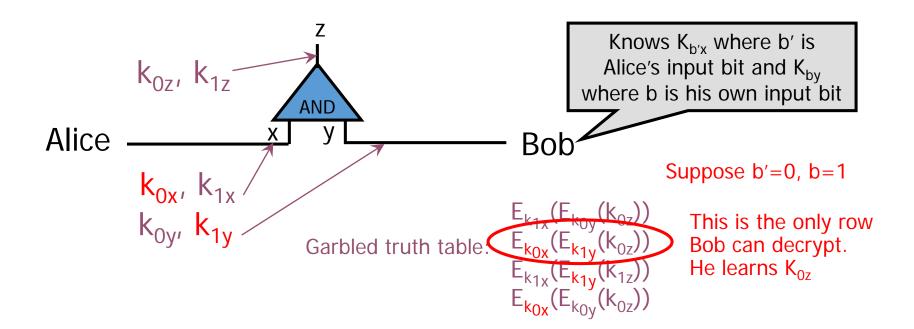
# 5: Use OT on Keys for Bob's Input

- Alice and Bob run oblivious transfer protocol
  - Alice's input is the two keys corresponding to Bob's wire
  - Bob's input into OT is simply his 1-bit input on that wire



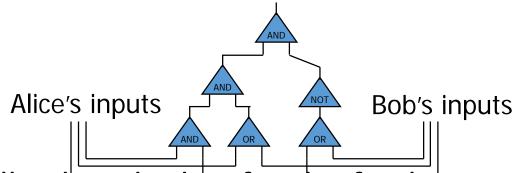
### 6: Evaluate Garbled Gate

- Using the two keys that he learned, Bob decrypts exactly one of the output-wire keys
  - Bob does not learn if this key corresponds to 0 or 1
    - Why is this important?



### 7: Evaluate Entire Circuit

- In this way, Bob evaluates entire garbled circuit
  - For each wire in the circuit, Bob learns only one key
  - It corresponds to 0 or 1 (Bob does not know which)
    - Therefore, Bob does not learn intermediate values (why?)



- Bob tells Alice the key for the final output wire and she tells him if it corresponds to 0 or 1
  - Bob does <u>not</u> tell her intermediate wire keys (why?)

# Security (Semi-Honest Model)

• **Security**: Assuming that Alice and Bob are both semi-honest (follow the protocol) then there exist PPT simulators  $S_A$  and  $S_B$  s.t.

$$\{A_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \equiv_C \{S_A(n,x,f_A(x,y))\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$$

$$\{B_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}} \equiv_C \{S_B(n,y,f_B(x,y))\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$$

• **Remark**: Simulator  $S_A$  is only shown Alice's output  $f_A(x,y)$  (similarly,  $S_B$  is only shown Bob's output  $f_B(x,y)$ )

**Theorem (informal):** If the oblivious transfer protocol is secure, and the underlying encryption scheme is CPA-secure then Yao's protocol is secure in the semi-honest adversary model.

### Brief Discussion of Yao's Protocol

- Function must be converted into a circuit
  - For many functions, circuit will be huge
- If m gates in the circuit and n inputs from Bob, then need 4m encryptions and n oblivious transfers
  - Oblivious transfers for all inputs can be done in parallel
- Yao's construction gives a <u>constant-round</u> protocol for secure computation of <u>any</u> function in the semi-honest model
  - Number of rounds does not depend on the number of inputs or the size of the circuit!

# Fully Malicious Security?

- 1. Alice could initially garble the wrong circuit C(x,y)=y.
- 2. Given output of C(x,y) Alice can still send Bob the output f(x,y).
- 3. Can Bob detect/prevent this?

**Fix:** Assume Alice and Bob have both committed to their input:  $c_A = com(xlr_A)$  and  $c_B = com(ylr_B)$ .

- Alice and Bob can use zero-knowledge proofs to convince other party that they are behaving honestly.
- **Example**: After sending a message A Alice proves that the message she just sent is the same message an honest party would have sent with input x s.t.  $c_A = com(xlr_A)$
- Here we assume that Alice and Bob have both committed to correct inputs (Bob might use y which does not represent his real vote etc... but this is not a problem we can address with cryptography)

# Fully Malicious Security

- Assume Alice and Bob have both committed to their input:  $c_A = com(xlr_A)$  and  $c_B = com(ylr_B)$ .
  - Here we assume that Alice and Bob have both committed to correct inputs (Bob might use y
    which does not represent his real vote etc... but this is not a problem we can address with
    cryptography)
  - Alice has c<sub>B</sub> and can unlock c<sub>A</sub>
  - Bob has c<sub>A</sub> and can unlock c<sub>B</sub>
- 1. Alice sets  $C_f = GarbleCircuit(f,r)$ .
  - 1. Alice sends to Bob.
  - 2. Alice convinces Bob that  $C_f$  = GarbleCircuit(f,r) for some r (using a zero-knowledge proof)
- 2. For each original oblivious transfer if Alice's inputs were originally  $x_0, x_1$ 
  - 1. Alice and Bob run OT with  $y_0, y_1$  where  $y_i = Enc_K(x_i)$
  - 2. Bob uses a zero-knowledge proof to convince Alice that he received the correct  $y_i$  (e.g. matching his previous commitment  $c_B$ )
  - 3. Alice sends K to Bob who decrypts  $y_i$  to obtain  $x_i$