Course Business

- Homework 4 Due Thursday in Class
- Bonus Problem (10 Points)
 - Second bonus problem (5 pts) is easiest to solve with Mathematica
 - https://sandbox.open.wolframcloud.com

Cryptography CS 555

Week 13:

- El Gamal
- RSA Attacks and Fixes
- Digital Signatures

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

Week 13 Topic 1: El-Gamal Encryption

- Public Key: *g*, *h*
- Secret Key: $x = dlog_g(h)$
- $\operatorname{Enc}_{\operatorname{pk}}(m) = \langle g^{\mathcal{Y}}, m \cdot h^{\mathcal{Y}} \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{\mathrm{sk}}(c = (c_1, c_2)) = c_2 c_1^{-x}$

$$Dec_{sk}(g^{y}, m \cdot h^{y}) = m \cdot h^{y}(g^{y})^{-x}$$

= $m \cdot h^{y}(g^{y})^{-x}$
= $m \cdot (g^{x})^{y}(g^{y})^{-x}$
= $m \cdot g^{xy}g^{-xy}$
= m

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{\mathcal{Y}}, m \cdot h^{\mathcal{Y}} \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{\mathrm{sk}}(c = (c_1, c_2)) = c_2 c_1^{-x}$

Theorem 11.18: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ be the El-Gamal Encryption scheme (above) then if DDH is hard relative to G then Π is CPA-Secure.

Proof: Recall that CPA-security and eavesdropping security are equivalent for public key crypto. Therefore, it suffices to show that for all PPT A there is a negligible function **negl** such that

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

Eavesdropping Security (PubK^{eav}_{A, Π}(n))



Random bit b (pk,sk) = Gen(.)



 $\forall PPT \ A \ \exists \mu \text{ (negligible) s.t}$ $\Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mu(n)$

Theorem 11.18: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ be the El-Gamal Encryption scheme (above) then if DDH is hard relative to G then Π is CPA-Secure.

Proof: First introduce an `encryption scheme' $\widetilde{\Pi}$ in which $\widetilde{Enc_{pk}}(m) = \langle g^y, m \cdot g^z \rangle$ for random y, $z \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ (there is actually no way to do decryption, but the experiment $\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n)$ is still well defined).

Claim: $\Pr[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n) = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$

Claim:
$$Pr[PubK_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n) = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

Proof: (using Lemma 11.15)

$$\begin{aligned} &\Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 1 | b = 1] + \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{\text{eav}}(n) = 0 | b = 0] \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\Pr_{y,z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q} [A(\langle g^y, m_1 \cdot g^z \rangle) = 1] - \Pr_{y,z \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q} [A(\langle g^y, m_0 \cdot g^z \rangle) = 1] \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Theorem 11.18: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ be the El-Gamal Encryption scheme (above) then if DDH is hard relative to G then Π is CPA-Secure. **Proof:** We just showed that

$$\Pr[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n) = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore, it suffices to show that $\left|\Pr\left[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{eav}(n) = 1\right] - \Pr\left[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n) = 1\right]\right| \le \operatorname{negl}(n)$

This, will follow from DDH assumption.

Theorem 11.18: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ be the El-Gamal Encryption scheme (above) then if DDH is hard relative to G then Π is CPA-Secure.

Proof: We can build $B(g^x, g^y, Z)$ to break DDH assumption if Π is not CPA-Secure. Simulate eavesdropping attacker A

- 1. Send attacker public key $pk = \langle \mathbb{G}, q, g, h = g^x \rangle$
- 2. Receive m_0, m_1 from A.
- 3. Send A the ciphertext $\langle g^{\gamma}, m_b \cdot Z \rangle$.

4. Output 1 if and only if attacker outputs b'=b; otherwise output 0.

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[B(g^{x}, g^{y}, Z) &= 1 | Z = g^{xy}] - \Pr[B(g^{x}, g^{y}, Z) = 1 | Z = g^{z}] | \\ &= \left| \Pr[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{eav}(n) = 1] - \Pr[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\widetilde{\Pi}}^{eav}(n) = 1] \right| \\ &= \left| \Pr[\operatorname{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{eav}(n) = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right| \end{aligned}$$

• $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{\mathcal{Y}}, m \cdot h^{\mathcal{Y}} \rangle$ for a random $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $h = g^{\mathcal{X}}$,

•
$$\operatorname{Dec}_{\mathbf{sk}}(c = (c_1, c_2)) = c_2 c_1^{-x}$$

Fact: El-Gamal Encryption is malleable.

$$c = \text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{y}, m \cdot h^{y} \rangle$$
$$c' = \langle g^{y}, 2 \cdot m \cdot h^{y} \rangle$$
$$\text{Dec}_{sk}(c') = 2 \cdot m \cdot h^{y} \cdot g^{-xy} = 2m$$

Hint: This observation may be relevant for homework 4.

Key Encapsulation Mechanism (KEM)

- Three Algorithms
 - Gen(1ⁿ, R) (Key-generation algorithm)
 - Input: Random Bits R
 - Output: $(pk, sk) \in \mathcal{K}$
 - Encaps_{pk} $(1^n, R)$
 - Input: security parameter, random bits R
 - Output: Symmetric key $\mathbf{k} \in \{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$ and a ciphertext c
 - Decaps_{sk}(c) (Deterministic algorithm)
 - Input: Secret key $\underline{sk} \in \mathcal{K}$ and a ciphertex c
 - Output: a symmetric key $\{0,1\}^{\ell(n)}$ or \perp (fail)
- Invariant: Decaps_{sk}(c)=k whenever (c,k) = $\text{Encaps}_{pk}(1^n, R)$

KEM CCA-Security ($KEM_{A,\Pi}^{cca}(n)$)



Random bit b (pk,sk) = Gen(.)



 $(c, k_0) = \operatorname{Encaps}_{pk}(.)$ $k_1 \leftarrow \{0, 1\}_{14}^n$

$$\forall PPT \ A \ \exists \mu \text{ (negligible) s.t}$$

 $\Pr[\text{KEM}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{cca}} = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mu(n)$

KEM from RSA and El-Gamal

- Recap: CCA-Secure KEM from RSA in Random Oracle Model
- El-Gamal also yields CCA-Secure KEM in Random Oracle Model
 - $(g^y, H(h^y)) \leftarrow \text{Encaps}_{pk}(1^n; R)$ and $\text{Decaps}_{sk}(g^y) = H(g^{xy})$
 - CDH assumption must hold.
- Above construction is also a CPA-Secure KEM in standard model
 - As long as $Pr_{x\in\mathbb{G}}[H(x)=k]\approx 2^{-\ell}$ for each key $k\in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$ and **DDH** holds
 - **Disadvantage:** weaker security notion for KEM, stronger DDH assumption
 - Advantage: Proof in standard model

- Key Generation ($Gen(1^n)$):
 - 1. Run $\mathcal{G}(1^n)$ to obtain a cyclic group \mathbb{G} of order q (with ||q|| = n) and a generator g such that $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{G}$.
 - 2. Choose a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and set $h = g^x$
 - 3. Public Key: $pk = \langle \mathbb{G}, q, g, h \rangle$
 - 4. Private Key: $sk = \langle \mathbb{G}, q, g, x \rangle$
- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{y}, c', Mac_{K_{M}}(c') \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ where

$$K_E \| K_M = H(h^y)$$
 (KEM)

and

$$c' = \operatorname{Enc}'_{K_{E}}(m)$$
 (Encrypt then MAC)

Public Key: $pk = \langle \mathbb{G}, q, g, h \rangle$ Private Key: $sk = \langle \mathbb{G}, q, g, x \rangle$

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{y}, c', Mac_{K_{M}}(c') \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $K_{E} || K_{M} = H(h^{y})$ and $c' = \operatorname{Enc}'_{K_{E}}(m)$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{sk}(\langle c, c', t \rangle)$
- $1. K_E \| K_M = H(c^x)$
- 2. If $\operatorname{Vrfy}_{K_M}(c', t) \neq 1$ or $c \notin \mathbb{G}$ output \perp ; otherwise output $\operatorname{Dec}'_{K_E}(c')$

Theorem: If Enc'_{K_E} is CPA-secure, Mac_{K_M} is a strong MAC and a problem called gap-CDH is hard then this a CCA-secure public key encryption scheme in the random oracle model.

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \langle g^{y}, c', \operatorname{Mac}_{K_{M}}(c') \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{q}$ and $K_{E} || K_{M} = H(h^{y})$ and $c' = \operatorname{Enc}'_{K_{E}}(m)$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{\mathrm{sk}}(\langle c, c', t \rangle)$
- $1. K_E \| K_M = H(c^x)$
- 2. If $\operatorname{Vrfy}_{K_{M}}(c',t) \neq 1$ or $c \notin \mathbb{G}$ output \bot ; otherwise output $\operatorname{Dec}'_{K_{E}}(c')$

Remark: The CCA-Secure variant is used in practice in the ISO/IEC 18033-2 standard for public-key encryption.

- Diffie-Hellman Integrated Encryption Scheme (DHIES)
- Elliptic Curve Integrated Encryption Scheme (ECIES)
- $\operatorname{Enc}_{\operatorname{pk}}(m) = \langle g^{\mathcal{Y}}, c', \operatorname{Mac}_{\operatorname{K_M}}(c') \rangle$ for a random $y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ and $K_E || K_M = H(h^{\mathcal{Y}})$ and $c' = \operatorname{Enc}'_{\operatorname{K_E}}(m)$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{sk}(\langle c, c', t \rangle)$
- $1. K_E \| K_M = H(c^x)$

2. If $\operatorname{Vrfy}_{K_M}(c',t) \neq 1$ or $c \notin \mathbb{G}$ output \bot ; otherwise output $\operatorname{Dec}'_{K_E}(c')$

Week 13: Topic 2: More RSA Attacks + Fixes

Recap

- CPA/CCA Security for Public Key Crypto
- Key Encapsulation Mechanism
- El-Gamal

Recap

- 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 $ed=1 \mod \phi(N)$

$$Enc_{pk}(m) = m^e \mod N$$
$$Dec_{sk}(c) = c^d \mod N$$

• Decryption Works because $[c^d \mod N] = [m^{ed} \mod N] = [m^{[ed \mod \phi(N)]} \mod N] = [m \mod N]$

(Review) Attacks on Plain RSA

- We have not introduced security models like CPA-Security or CCA-security for Public Key Cryptosystems
- However, notice that (Plain) RSA Encryption is stateless and deterministic.
 →Plain RSA is not secure against chosen-plaintext attacks
- Plain RSA is also highly vulnerable to chosen-ciphertext attacks
 - Attacker intercepts ciphertext c of secret message m
 - Attacker generates ciphertext c' for secret message 2m
 - Attacker asks for decryption of c' to obtain 2m
 - Divide by 2 to recover original message m

(Review) More Plain RSA Attacks

- Encrypted messages with low entropy are vulnerable to a brute-force attack.
 - If m < B then attacker can recover m after at most B queries to encryption oracle (using public key)
 - In fact, there is an attack that runs in time $T = B^{\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon}$
- Coppersmith Attacks
 - Recover partially known message m from ciphertext (when e is small)
 - Factor N=pq when we have good estimate $\tilde{p} \approx p$

More Attacks: Encrypting Related Messages

- Sender encrypts m and $m + \delta$, where offset δ is known to attacker
- Attacker intercepts

$$c_1 = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = m^e \mod N$$

and

$$c_2 = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m+\delta) = (m+\delta)^e \mod N$$

• Attacker defines polynomials

$$f_1(x) = x^e - c_1 \mod N$$

and

$$f_2(x) = (x + \delta)^e - c_2 \mod N$$

More Attacks: Encrypting Related Messages

$$c_1 = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = m^e \mod N$$

$$c_2 = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m + \delta) = (m + \delta)^e \mod N$$

• Attacker defines polynomials

$$f_1(x) = x^e - c_1 \mod N$$

and

$$f_2(x) = (x + \delta)^e - c_2 \mod N$$

- Both polynomials have a root at x=m, thus (x-m) is a factor of both polynomials
- The GCD operation can be extended to operate over polynomials ③
- $GCD(f_1(x), f_2(x))$ reveals the factor (x-m), and hence the message m

Sending the Same Message to Multiple Receivers

- Homework 4 Bonus Question
 - e=3
 - $c_1 = [m^3 \mod N_1]$
 - $c_2 = [m^3 \mod N_2]$
 - $c_2 = [m^3 \mod N_3]$
- Attacker receives all (e=3) ciphexts (sent to Alice, Bob and Jane) and can recover m.
- Homework 4 Hint: The solution involves the Chinese Remainder Theorem

Apply GCD to Pairs of RSA Moduli?

- Fact: If we pick two random RSA moduli N_1 and N_2 then except with negligible probability $gcd(N_1, N_2) = 1$
- In theory the attack shouldn't work, but...
- In practice, many people generated RSA moduli using weak pseudorandom number generators.
 - .5% of TLS hosts
 - .03% of SSH hosts
- See https://factorable.net

Dependent Keys Part 1

- Suppose an organization generates N=pq and a pair (e_i,d_i) for each employee i subject to the constraints $e_id_i=1 \mod \phi(N)$.
- Question: Is this secure?
- Answer: No, given $e_i d_i$ employee i can factor N (and then recover everyone else's secret key).
- See Theorem 8.50 in the textbook

Dependent Keys Part 2

- Suppose an organization generates N=pq and a pair (e_i , d_i) for each employee i subject to the constraints $e_i d_i = 1 \mod \phi(N)$.
- Suppose that each employee is trusted (so it is ok if employee i factors N)
- Suppose that a message m is encrypted and sent to employee 1 and 2.
- Attacker intercepts $c_1 = [m^{e_1} \mod N]$ and $c_2 = [m^{e_2} \mod N]$

Dependent Keys Part 2

- Suppose an organization generates N=pq and a pair (e_i, d_i) for each employee i subject to the constraints $e_i d_i = 1 \mod \phi(N)$.
- Suppose that a message m is encrypted and sent to employee 1 and 2.
- Attacker intercepts $c_1 = [m^{e_1} \mod N]$ and $c_2 = [m^{e_2} \mod N]$
- If $gcd(e_1,e_2)=1$ (which is reasonably likely) then attacker can run extended GCD algorithm to find X,Y such that $Xe_1+Ye_2=1$. $[c_1^{X}c_2^{Y} \mod N] = [m^{Xe_1}m^{Ye_2} \mod N] = [m^{Xe_1+Ye_2} \mod N] = m$

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RSA-OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding)

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m;r) = [(x \parallel y)^e \mod N]$
- Where $x \parallel y \leftarrow OAEP(m \parallel 0^{k_1} \parallel r)$
- $\mathbf{Dec}_{sk}(c) =$
- $\widetilde{m} \leftarrow [(c)^d \bmod N]$
- If $\|\widetilde{m}\| > n$ return fail
- $m \parallel z \parallel r \leftarrow \mathsf{OAEP}^{-1}(\widetilde{m})$
- If $z \neq 0^{k_1}$ then output fail
- Otherwise output m



Recap RSA-Assumption

RSA-Experiment: RSA-INV_{A,n}

- **1.** Run KeyGeneration(1ⁿ) to obtain (N,e,d)
- **2.** Pick uniform $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$
- 3. Attacker A is given N, e, y and outputs $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{M}^{*}$
- 4. Attacker wins (RSA–INV_{A,n}=1) if $x^e = y \mod N$

 $\forall PPT \ A \exists \mu \text{ (negligible) s.t } \Pr[RSA-INV_{A,n} = 1] \leq \mu(n)$

RSA-OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding)

Theorem: If we model G and H as Random oracles then RSA-OAEP is a CCA-Secure public key encryption scheme (given RSA-Inversion assumption).

Bonus: One of the fastest in practice!



PKCS #1 v2.0

- Implementation of RSA-OAEP
- James Manger found a chosen-ciphertext attack.
- What gives?

PKCS #1 v2.0 (Bad Implementation)

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m;r) = [(x \parallel y)^e \mod N]$
- Where $x \parallel y \leftarrow OAEP(m \parallel 0^{k_1} \parallel r)$
- $\mathbf{Dec}_{sk}(c) =$
- $\widetilde{m} \leftarrow [(c)^d \bmod N]$
- If $\|\widetilde{m}\| > n$ return Error Message 1
- $m \parallel z \parallel r \leftarrow \mathsf{OAEP}^{-1}(\widetilde{m})$
- If $z \neq 0^{k_1}$ then output Error Message 2
- Otherwise output m

- $\operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m;r) = [(x \parallel y)^e \mod N]$
- Where $x \parallel y \leftarrow OAEP(m \parallel 0^{k_1} \parallel r)$
- $\operatorname{Dec}_{sk}(c) =$
- $\widetilde{m} \leftarrow [(c)^d \mod N]$
- If $\|\widetilde{m}\| > n$ return Error Message 1
- $m \parallel z \parallel r \leftarrow \mathsf{OAEP}^{-1}(\widetilde{m})$
- If $z \neq 0^{k_1}$ then output Error Message 2
- Otherwise output m

PKCS #1 v2.0 (Attack)

- Manger's CCA-Attack recovers secret message
 - Step 1: Use decryption oracle to check if $2\widetilde{m} \geq 2^n$
 - $c = [(\widetilde{m})^e \mod N] \rightarrow 2^e c = [(2\widetilde{m})^e \mod N]$
- Requires ||N|| queries to decryption oracle.
- Attack also works as a side channel attack
 - Even if error messages are the same the time to respond could be different in each case.
- Fix: Implementation should return same error message and should make sure that the time to return each error is the same.

Week 13: Topic 3: Digital Signatures (Part 1)

Recap

- CPA/CCA Security for Public Key Crypto
- Key Encapsulation Mechanism
- El-Gamal/RSA-OAEP

What Does It Mean to "Secure Information"

- Confidentiality (Security/Privacy)
 - Only intended recipient can see the communication
- Integrity (Authenticity)
 - The message was actually sent by the alleged sender



Encryption/MACs/Signatures

- (Public/Private Key) Encryption: Focus on Secrecy
 - But does not promise integrity
- MACs/Digital Signatures: Focus on Integrity
 - But does not promise secrecy
- Digital Signatures
 - Public key analogue of MAC

Digital Signature: Application

- Verify updates to software package
- Vendor generates (sk,pk) for Digital Signature scheme and packages pk in the original software bundle
- An update **m** should be signed by vendor using secret key **sk**
- Security: Malicious party should not be able to generate signature for new update m'

Digital Signature vs MACs

- Application: Validate updates to software
- Problem can be addressed by MACs, but there are several problems
- Key Explosion: Vendor must sign update using every individual key
 - Thought Question: Why not use a shared Private key?
- Non-Transferable: If Alice validates an update from vendor she can not convince Bob that the update is valid
 - Bob needs to receive MAC directly from vendor

Digital Signatures vs MACs

- Publicly Verifiable
- Transferable
 - Alice can forward digital signature to Bob, who is convinced (both Alice and Bob have the public key of the vendor)
- Non-repudiation
 - Can "certify" a particular message came from sender
- MACs do not satisfy non-repudiation
 - Suppose Alice reveals a shared key KAB along with a valid tag for a message m to a judge.
 - The judge should not be convinced the message was MACed by Bob. Why not?

Digital Signature Scheme

- Three Algorithms
 - Gen(1ⁿ, R) (Key-generation algorithm)
 - Input: Random Bits R
 - Output: $(pk, sk) \in \mathcal{K}$
 - $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}_{sk}(m, R)$ (Signing algorithm)
 - Input: Secret key sk message m, random bits κ
 - Output: signature σ
 - b := Vrfy_{pk}(m, σ) (Verification algorithm --- Deterministic
 - Input: Public key pk, message m and a signature σ
 - Output: 1 (Valid) or 0 (Invalid)

Alice must run key generation algorithm in advance an publishes the public key: pk

Assumption: Adversary only gets to see pk (not sk)

• **Correctness**: $Vrfy_{pk}(m, Sign_{sk}(m, R)) = 1$ (except with negligible probability)

Signature Experiment (Sig – $forge_{A,\Pi}(n)$)



Signature Experiment (Sig – forge, – (n))

Formally, let $\Pi = (Gen, Sign, Vrfy)$ denote the signature scheme, call the experiment Sig – forge_{A.II}(n)

We say that Π is existentially unforgeable under an adaptive chosen message attack (or just secure) if for all PPT adversaries A, there is a negligible function μ such that $\Pr[\text{Sig} - \text{forge}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \le \mu(n)$

Existential Unforgeability

- Limitation: Does not prevent replay attacks
 - $\sigma \leftarrow \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}("Pay Bob \$50", R)$
 - If this is a problem then you can include timestamp in signature
- Unforgeability: does rule out the possibility attacker modifies a signature
- Plain RSA signatures are malleable (does not satisfy our security notion)
- **Remark:** By design signatures cannot hide all information about message *m*
 - Public Verification \rightarrow Attacker can easily distinguish between a signature for m₁ and m₂

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 $\phi(N)$

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

• Verification Works because $\left[\operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m)^{e} \mod N\right] = \left[m^{ed} \mod N\right] = \left[m^{\left[ed \mod \phi(N)\right]} \mod N\right] = m$

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, σ)

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

- Public-Key vs Private Key Encryption
 - Private Key Encryption is much more efficient (computationally)
- Similarly, natural signature schemes (e.g., RSA signatures) are much less efficient than MACs
- For long messages we can achieve same (amortized) efficiency

- Suppose we have a Digital Signature Scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and we want to sign a longer message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$.
- Attempt 1:

$$\operatorname{Sign}_{\mathrm{sk}}^*(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, R_1, \dots, R_k) = \operatorname{Sign}_{\mathrm{sk}}(m_1, R_1), \dots, \operatorname{Sign}_{\mathrm{sk}}(m_k, R_k)$$

• Problem?

- Suppose we have a Digital Signature Scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and we want to sign a longer message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$. $\operatorname{Sign}^*_{\langle \operatorname{sk}, s \rangle}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, R) = \operatorname{Sign}_{\operatorname{sk}}(H(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k), R)$ $\operatorname{Vrfy}^*_{\langle \operatorname{pk}, s \rangle}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, \sigma) = \operatorname{Vrfy}_{\operatorname{pk}}(H^s(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k), \sigma)$
- Secure?

- Suppose we have a Digital Signature Scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and we want to sign a longer message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$. $\operatorname{Sign}^*_{\langle \operatorname{sk}, \boldsymbol{s} \rangle}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, R) = \operatorname{Sign}_{\operatorname{sk}}(H^{\boldsymbol{s}}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k), R)$ $\operatorname{Vrfy}^*_{\langle \operatorname{pk}, \boldsymbol{s} \rangle}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, \sigma) = \operatorname{Vrfy}_{\operatorname{pk}}(H^{\boldsymbol{s}}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k), \sigma)$
- Secure?

Theorem 12.4. If $\Pi = (\text{Gen, Sign, Vrfy})$ is a secure signature scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and Π_H is collision resistant then the above construction is a secure signature scheme for arbitrary length messages.

• Suppose we have a Digital Signature Scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and we want to sign a longer message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$. $\operatorname{Sign}^*_{\langle \operatorname{sk}, \boldsymbol{s} \rangle}(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k, R) = \operatorname{Sign}_{\operatorname{sk}}(H^s(m_1, m_2, \dots, mk), R)$

 $\operatorname{Vrfy}_{\langle \mathrm{pk}, \mathbf{s} \rangle}^{*}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, mk, \sigma) = \operatorname{Vrfy}_{\mathrm{pk}}(H^{\mathbf{s}}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, mk), \sigma)$

Theorem 12.4. If $\Pi = (\text{Gen, Sign, Vrfy})$ is a secure signature scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and Π_H is collision resistant then the above construction is a secure signature scheme for arbitrary length messages.

Proof Sketch: If attacker wins security game with $\text{Sign}^*_{\langle sk,s \rangle}$ then he outputs message $m \notin \Omega$ such that $\text{Vrfy}^*_{\langle pk,s \rangle}(m,\sigma)$

• Suppose we have a Digital Signature Scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and we want to sign a longer message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$.

$$\operatorname{Sign}_{\langle sk, s \rangle}^{*}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, m_{k}, R) = \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(H^{s}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, mk), R)$$
$$\operatorname{Vrfy}_{\langle pk, s \rangle}^{*}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, mk, \sigma) = \operatorname{Vrfy}_{pk}(H^{s}(m_{1}, m_{2}, \dots, mk), \sigma)$$

Theorem 12.4. If $\Pi = (\text{Gen, Sign, Vrfy})$ is a secure signature scheme for messages of length $\ell(n)$ and Π_H is collision resistant then the above construction is a secure signature scheme for arbitrary length messages.

Proof Sketch: If attacker wins security game with $\operatorname{Sign}^*_{\langle sk, s \rangle}$ then he outputs message $m \notin \mathfrak{Q}$ such that $\operatorname{Vrfy}^*_{\langle pk, s \rangle}(m, \sigma)$

- Case 1: H(m)=H(m') for some $m' \notin \mathfrak{Q}$
- →break collision-resistance
- Case 2: H(m) \neq H(m') for all $m' \notin \mathfrak{Q}$

 \rightarrow (break security of underlying signature scheme Π)

RSA-FDH

- Full Domain Hash: $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
- Given a message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$

$$\sigma = \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) = H(m)^d \mod N$$

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: $H: \{0,1\}^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
- Given a message $m \in \{0,1\}^*$

$$\sigma = \operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) = H(m)^d \mod N$$

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.

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 $\operatorname{Sign}_{sk}(m) = r^{ed} = r \mod N$.

One-Time Signature Scheme

- Weak notion of one-time secure signature schemes
 - Attacker makes one query to oracle Sign_{sk}(.) and then attempts to output forged signature for m'
 - If attacker sees two different signatures then guarantees break down
- Achievable from Hash Functions
 - No number theory!
 - No Random Oracles!

Lamport's Signature Scheme (from OWFs)

$$sk = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,0} & x_{2,0} & x_{3,0} \\ x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} & x_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$pk = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1,0} & y_{2,0} & y_{3,0} \\ y_{1,1} & y_{2,1} & y_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_{i,j} \in \{0,1\}^n (uniform)$$
$$y_{i,j} = f(x_{i,j})$$

Assumption: f is a One-Way Function

Lamport's Signature Scheme (from OWFs)

$$sk = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,0} & x_{2,0} & x_{3,0} \\ x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} & x_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$pk = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1,0} & y_{2,0} & y_{3,0} \\ y_{1,1} & y_{2,1} & y_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Sign_{sk}(011) = (x_{1,0}, x_{2,1}, x_{3,1})$$

Lamport's Signature Scheme (from OWFs)

$$sk = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,0} & x_{2,0} & x_{3,0} \\ x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} & x_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$pk = \begin{bmatrix} y_{1,0} & y_{2,0} & y_{3,0} \\ y_{1,1} & y_{2,1} & y_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Sign_{sk}(011) = (x_{1,0}, x_{2,1}, x_{3,1})$$
$$Vrfy_{pk}(011, (x_1, x_2, x_3)) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } f(x_1) = y_{1,0} \land f(x_2) = y_{2,1} \land f(x_3) = y_{3,1} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lamport's Signature Scheme

Theorem 12.16: Lamport's Signature Scheme is a secure one-time signature scheme (assuming f is a one-way function).

Proof Sketch: Signing a fresh message requires inverting $f(x_{i,j})$ for random $x_{i,j}$.

Remark: Attacker can break scheme if he can request two signatures.

How?

Request signatures of both 0ⁿ and 1ⁿ.

Lamport's Signature Scheme

Remark: Attacker can break scheme if he can request two signatures.

How?

Request signatures of both 0ⁿ and 1ⁿ.

$$sk = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,0} & x_{2,0} & x_{3,0} \\ x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} & x_{3,1} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$Sign_{sk}(000) = (x_{1,0}, x_{2,0}, x_{3,0})$$
$$Sign_{sk}(111) = (x_{1,1}, x_{2,1}, x_{3,1})$$

Secure Signature Scheme from OWFs

Theorem 12.22: secure/stateless signature scheme from collision-resistant hash functions.

• Collision Resistant Hash Functions do imply OWFs exist

Remark: Possible to construct signature scheme Π which is existentially unforgeable under an adaptive chosen message attacks using the minimal assumption that one-way functions exist.