

Cryptography

CS 555

Week 10:

- RSA
- Attacks on Plain RSA
- Discrete Log/DDH

Readings: Katz and Lindell Chapter 8.2-8.3,11.5.1

Recap

- Polynomial time algorithms (in bit lengths $\|\mathbf{a}\|$, $\|\mathbf{b}\|$ and $\|\mathbf{N}\|$) to do important computations on integers
 - $\text{GCD}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b})$
 - Find multiplicative inverse \mathbf{a}^{-1} of \mathbf{a} such that $1 = [\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}^{-1} \bmod \mathbf{N}]$ (if it exists)
 - PowerMod: $[\mathbf{a}^b \bmod \mathbf{N}]$
 - Draw uniform sample from $\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N \mid \text{gcd}(N, x) = 1\}$
- **Fact:** $[g^x \bmod N] = [g^{[x \bmod \phi(N)]} \bmod N]$ where $\phi(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$
 - Proof: Group Theory
- Chinese Remainder Theorem

CS 555: Week 10: Topic 1

Finding Prime Numbers, RSA

RSA Key-Generation

KeyGeneration(1^n)

Step 1: Pick two random n -bit primes p and q

Step 2: Let $N=pq$, $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

Step 3: ...

Question: How do we accomplish step one?

Bertrand's Postulate

Theorem 8.32. For any $n > 1$ the fraction of n -bit integers that are prime is at least $1/3n$.

GenerateRandomPrime(1^n)

For $i=1$ to $3n^2$:

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

$p \leftarrow 1 || p'$

if isPrime(p) **then**

return p

return fail



Can we do this in polynomial time?

Bertrand's Postulate

Theorem 8.32. For any $n > 1$ the fraction of n -bit integers that are prime is at least $1/3n$.

GenerateRandomPrime(1^n)

For $i=1$ to $3n^2$:

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

$p \leftarrow 1 \| p'$

if isPrime(p) **then**

return p

return fail

Assume for now that we can run isPrime(p). What are the odds that the algorithm fails?

On each iteration the probability that p is not a prime is $\left(1 - \frac{1}{3n}\right)$

We fail if we pick a non-prime in all $3n^2$ iterations. The probability of failure is at most

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{3n}\right)^{3n^2} = \left(\left(1 - \frac{1}{3n}\right)^{3n}\right)^n \leq e^{-n}$$

isPrime(p): Miller-Rabin Test

- We can check for primality of p in polynomial time in $\|p\|$.

Theory: Deterministic algorithm to test for primality.

- See breakthrough paper “Primes is in P”
- https://www.cse.iitk.ac.in/users/manindra/algebra/primality_v6.pdf

Practice: Miller-Rabin Test (randomized algorithm)

- **Guarantee 1:** If p is prime then the test outputs YES
- **Guarantee 2:** If p is not prime then the test outputs NO (except with negligible probability).

The “Almost” Miller-Rabin Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

for $i=1$ to t :


$a \leftarrow \{1, \dots, N-1\}$

 if $a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod N$ then return “composite”

Return “prime”

Claim: If N is prime then algorithm always outputs “prime”

Proof: For any $a \in \{1, \dots, N-1\}$ we have $a^{N-1} \equiv a^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod N$


 $\phi(N) = N - 1$ for primes N

The “Almost” Miller-Rabin Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

for $i=1$ to t :

$a \leftarrow \{1, \dots, N-1\}$ //random

 if $a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod N$ then return “composite”

Return “prime”

Need a bit of extra work to handle Carmichael numbers (see textbook).

Fact: If N is composite and not a Carmichael number then the algorithm outputs “composite” with probability

$$1 - 2^{-t}$$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If $\text{Even}(N)$ or $\text{PerfectPower}(N)$ return “composite”

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ s.t. $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If $\text{Even}(N)$ or $\text{PerfectPower}(N)$ return “composite”

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ s.t. $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

Lemma: If p is prime and
 $x^2 = 1 \pmod p$ then
 $x = \pm 1 \pmod p$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If Even(N) or PerfectPower(N) return “composite”

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ s.t. $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{N}$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{N}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

If N is prime then:

$$\begin{aligned} (a^{2^{r-1}u})^2 &= a^{N-1} \pmod{N} \\ &= 1 \pmod{N} \end{aligned}$$

$$a^{2^i u} - 1 = (a^{2^{i-1}u} - 1)(a^{2^{i-1}u} + 1)$$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If Even(N) or PerfectPower(N)

Else find u (odd) and r such that $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

If N is prime we won't return composite

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= (a^{2^r u} - 1) = (a^{2^{r-1} u} - 1)(a^{2^{r-1} u} + 1) \\ &= \dots = (a^{2^{r-2} u} - 1)(a^{2^{r-2} u} + 1)(a^{2^{r-1} u} + 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$a^{2^i u} - 1 = (a^{2^{i-1} u} - 1)(a^{2^{i-1} u} + 1)$$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter t

Output: "prime" or "composite"

If Even(N) or PerfectPower(N)

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ such that $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return "composite"

Return "prime"

If N is prime we won't return composite

$$0 = (a^{2^r u}) - 1 = \dots = (a^u - 1) \prod_{i=0}^{r-1} (a^{2^i u} + 1)$$

$$a^{2^i u} - 1 = (a^{2^{i-1} u} - 1) (a^{2^{i-1} u} + 1)$$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

One of these factors must be 0 (mod N)

Input: Integer N and parameters t, s

Output: "prime" or "composite"

If Even(N) or PerfectPower(N):

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$

for $j=1$ to t :

 pick a in $[2, N-2]$ randomly

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r-1$

return "composite"

Return "prime"

If N is prime we won't return composite

$$0 = (a^{2^r u}) - 1 = \dots = (a^u - 1) \prod_{i=0}^{r-1} (a^{2^i u} + 1)$$

$$a^{2^i u} - 1 = (a^{2^{i-1} u} - 1) (a^{2^{i-1} u} + 1)$$

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If Even(N) or PerfectPower(N) return “composite”

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ s.t. $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod N$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod N$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

Claim: If N is composite then *at most* $\frac{1}{4}$ choices of random value a in $[2, n-1]$ will pass the test

Miller-Rabin Primality Test

Input: Integer N and parameter 1^t

Output: “prime” or “composite”

If $\text{Even}(N)$ or $\text{PerfectPower}(N)$ return “composite”

Else find u (odd) and $r \geq 1$ s.t. $N - 1 = 2^r u$

for $j=1$ to t :

if $a^u \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{N}$ and $a^{2^i u} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{N}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq r - 1$

return “composite”

Return “prime”

Claim: If N is composite then we return prime with probability at most 4^{-t}

Proof: (See textbook 😊)

Back to RSA Key-Generation

KeyGeneration(1^n)

Step 1: Pick two random n -bit primes p and q

Step 2: Let $N=pq$, $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

Step 3: Pick $e > 1$ such that $\gcd(e, \phi(N))=1$

Step 4: Set $d=[e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)]$ (secret key)

Return: N, e, d

- How do we find d ?
- **Answer:** Use extended gcd algorithm to find $e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$.

Back to RSA Key-Generation

KeyGeneration(1^n)

Step 1: Pick two random n -bit primes p and q

Step 2: Let $N=pq$, $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

Step 3: Pick $e > 1$ such that $\gcd(e, \phi(N))=1$

Step 4: Set $d=[e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)]$ (secret key)

Return: N, e, d

- What is the probability that $e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$ exists when we pick e randomly?
- **Hint:** $\phi(\phi(N))$ choices of e in $\mathbb{Z}_{\phi(N)}$ have a multiplicative inverse mod $\phi(N)$.

Be Careful Where You Get Your “Random Bits!”

```
int getRandomNumber()  
{  
    return 4; // chosen by fair dice roll.  
             // guaranteed to be random.  
}
```

- RSA Keys Generated with weak PRG
 - Implementation Flaw
 - Unfortunately Commonplace
- Resulting Keys are Vulnerable
 - Sophisticated Attack
 - Coppersmith’s Method



The image shows a screenshot of an Ars Technica article. The header includes the Ars Technica logo and navigation links for BIZ & IT, TECH, SCIENCE, POLICY, CARS, GAMING & CULTURE, and FORUMS. The article title is "Millions of high-security crypto keys crippled by newly discovered flaw" with a sub-headline "Factorization weakness lets attackers impersonate key holders and decrypt their data." The author is Dan Goodin, dated 10/16/2017, 7:00 AM. Below the text is a photograph of an Estonian Digital Identity Card (DIGITAALNE ISIKUTUNNISTUS) for Stephen Jurvetson. The card displays the name, date of expiry (02.12.2017), document number (N01), and personal code (367030100). A small photo of the cardholder is visible in the top right corner. The card also features the text "AINULT ELEKTROONILISEKS KASUTAMISEKS" and "ELECTRONIC USE ONLY".

Enlarge / 750,000 Estonian cards that look like this use a 2048-bit RSA key that can be factored in a matter of days.

(Plain) RSA Encryption

- Public Key: $PK=(N,e)$
- Message $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N$

$$\mathbf{Enc}_{PK}(m) = [m^e \bmod N]$$

- **Remark:** Encryption is efficient if we use the power mod algorithm.

(Plain) RSA Decryption

- Secret Key: $SK=(N,d)$
- Ciphertext $c \in \mathbb{Z}_N$

$$\mathbf{Dec}_{SK}(c) = [c^d \bmod N]$$

- **Remark 1:** Decryption is efficient if we use the power mod algorithm.
- **Remark 2:** Suppose that $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and let $c=\mathbf{Enc}_{PK}(m) = [m^e \bmod N]$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Dec}_{SK}(c) &= [(m^e)^d \bmod N] = [m^{ed} \bmod N] \\ &= [m^{[ed \bmod \phi(N)]} \bmod N] \\ &= [m^1 \bmod N] = m\end{aligned}$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Theorem: Let $N = pq$ (where $\gcd(p,q)=1$) be given and let $f: \mathbb{Z}_N \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ be defined as follows

$$f(x) = ([x \bmod p], [x \bmod q])$$

then

- f is a bijective mapping (invertible)
- f and its inverse $f^{-1}: \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_q \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ can be computed efficiently
- $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$
- The restriction of f to \mathbb{Z}_N^* yields a bijective mapping to $\mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_q^*$
- For inputs $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ we have $f(x)f(y) = f(xy)$

RSA Decryption

- Secret Key: $SK=(N,d)$
- Ciphertext $c \in \mathbb{Z}_N$

$$\mathbf{Dec}_{SK}(c) = [c^d \bmod N]$$

- **Remark 1:** Decryption is efficient if we use the power mod algorithm.
- **Remark 2:** Suppose that $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and let $c = \mathbf{Enc}_{PK}(m) = [m^e \bmod N]$ then
$$\mathbf{Dec}_{SK}(c) = m$$
- **Remark 3:** Even if $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N \setminus \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and let $c = \mathbf{Enc}_{PK}(m) = [m^e \bmod N]$ then
$$\mathbf{Dec}_{SK}(c) = m$$
 - Use Chinese Remainder Theorem to show this
$$ed = 1 + k(p - 1)(q - 1)$$
$$\rightarrow f(c^d) = ([m^{ed} \bmod p], [m^{ed} \bmod q]) = ([m^1 \bmod p], [m^1 \bmod q])$$
$$\rightarrow f^{-1}(f(c^d)) = f^{-1}([m^1 \bmod p], [m^1 \bmod q]) = m$$

Plain RSA (Summary)

- Public Key (pk): $N = pq$, e such that $\text{GCD}(e, \phi(N)) = 1$
 - $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ for distinct primes p and q
- Secret Key (sk): N , d such that $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$
- **Encrypt(pk=(N,e),m) = $m^e \pmod{N}$**
- **Decrypt(sk=(N,d),c) = $c^d \pmod{N}$**

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

Factoring Assumption

Let **GenModulus**(1^n) be a randomized algorithm that outputs $(N=pq, p, q)$ where p and q are n -bit primes (except with negligible probability **negl**(n)).

Experiment $\text{FACTOR}_{A,n}$

1. $(N=pq, p, q) \leftarrow \text{GenModulus}(1^n)$
2. Attacker A is given N as input
3. Attacker A outputs $p' > 1$ and $q' > 1$
4. Attacker A wins if $N=p'q'$.

Factoring Assumption

- Necessary for security of RSA.
- Not known to be sufficient.

Experiment $\text{FACTOR}_{A,n}$

1. $(N=pq, p, q) \leftarrow \text{GenModulus}(1^n)$
2. Attacker A is given N as input
3. Attacker A outputs $p' > 1$ and $q' > 1$
4. Attacker A wins ($\text{FACTOR}_{A,n} = 1$) if and only if $N=p'q'$.

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

RSA-Inversion Assumption

RSA-Experiment: $\text{RSA-INV}_{A,n}$

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

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

RSA-Assumption

RSA-Experiment: $\text{RSA-INV}_{A,n}$

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

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

- Plain RSA Encryption behaves like a one-way function
- Attacker cannot invert encryption of random message

Discussion of RSA-Assumption

- Plain RSA Encryption behaves like a one-way-function
- Decryption key is a “trapdoor” which allows us to invert the OWF
- RSA-Assumption → OWFs exist

Recap

- Plain RSA
- Public Key (pk): $N = pq$, e such that $\text{GCD}(e, \phi(N)) = 1$
 - $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ for distinct primes p and q
- Secret Key (sk): N , d such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$
- **Encrypt(pk=(N,e),m) = $m^e \pmod N$**
- **Decrypt(sk=(N,d),c) = $c^d \pmod N$**

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

Mathematica Demo

https://www.cs.purdue.edu/homes/jblocki/courses/555_Spring17/slides/Lecture24Demo.nb

<http://develop.wolframcloud.com/app/>

Note: Online version of mathematica available at <https://sandbox.open.wolframcloud.com> (reduced functionality, but can be used to solve homework bonus problems)

(Toy) RSA Implementation in Mathematica

(* Random Seed 123456 is not secure, but it allows us to repeat the experiment *)

SeedRandom[123456]

(* Step 1: Generate primes for an RSA key *)

p = RandomPrime[{10¹⁰⁰⁰, 10¹⁰⁵⁰};

q = RandomPrime[{10¹⁰⁰⁰, 10¹⁰⁵⁰};

NN = p q; (*Symbol N is protected in mathematica *)

phi = (p - 1) (q - 1);

(Toy) RSA Implementation in Mathematica

(* Step 1.A: Find e *)

GCD[phi,7]

Output: 7

(* GCD[phi,7] is not 1, so he have to try a different value of e *)

GCD[phi,3]

Output: 1

(* We can set e=3 *)

e=3;

(Toy) RSA Implementation in Mathematica

(* Step 1.B find d s.t. $ed = 1 \pmod N$ by using the extended GCD algorithm *)

(* Mathematica is clever enough to do this automatically *)

Solve[e x == 1, Modulus->phi]

Output:

{{x->36469680590663028301700626132883867272718728905205088...

.....

394069421778610209425624440980084481398131}}

(* We can now set $d = x$ *)

d=364696805.... 8131;

(Toy) RSA Implementation in Mathematica

```
(* Double Check 1 = [ed mod  $\phi(N)$ ] *)
```

```
Mod [e d, (p-1)(q-1)]
```

Output: 1

```
(* Encrypt the message 200,  $c = m^e \bmod N$  *)
```

```
m = 200;
```

```
PowerMod[m,e,NN]
```

Output: 8 000 000

(Toy) RSA Implementation in Mathematica

(* Encrypt the message 200, $c = m^e \bmod N$ *)

m = 200;

PowerMod[m,e,NN]

Output: 8 000 000

(* Hm...That doesn't seem too secure *)

CubeRoot[PowerMod[m,e,NN]]

Output: 200

(* Moral: if $m^e < N$ then Plain RSA does not hide the message m . *)

RSA Implementation in Mathematica

(* Encrypt a larger message, $c = m^e \pmod N$ *)

```
SeedRandom[1234567];
```

```
m2= RandomInteger[{10^1500,10^1501}];
```

```
c=PowerMod[m2,e,NN]
```

Output: 405215834903772786..... 388068292685976133

(* Does it Decrypt Properly? *)

```
PowerMod[c,d, NN]-m2
```

Output: 0

(* Yes! *)

CS 555: Week 10: Topic 2

Attacks on Plain RSA

(Plain) RSA Discussion

- 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
- As we will see Plain RSA is also highly vulnerable to chosen-ciphertext attacks

(Plain) RSA Discussion

- However, notice that (Plain) RSA Encryption is stateless and deterministic.
→ Plain RSA is not secure against chosen-plaintext attacks
- **Remark:** In a public key setting the attacker who knows the public key *always* has access to an encryption oracle
- Encrypted messages with low entropy are particularly vulnerable to brute-force attacks
 - **Example:** If $m < B$ then attacker can recover m from $c = \text{Enc}_{\text{pk}}(m)$ after at most B queries to encryption oracle (using public key)

Chosen Ciphertext Attack on Plain RSA

1. Attacker intercepts ciphertext $c = [m^e \bmod N]$
2. Attacker generates ciphertext c' for secret message $2m$ as follows
3. $c' = [(c2^e) \bmod N]$
4. $\quad = [(m^e 2^e) \bmod N]$
5. $\quad = [(2m)^e \bmod N]$
6. Attacker asks for decryption of $[c2^e \bmod N]$ and receives $2m$.
7. Divide by two to recover message

Above Example: Shows plain RSA is highly vulnerable to ciphertext-tampering attacks

More Weaknesses: Plain RSA with small e

- (Small Messages) If $m^e < N$ then we can decrypt $c = m^e \bmod N$ directly
e.g., $m = c^{(1/e)}$
- (Partially Known Messages) If an attacker knows first $1 - (1/e)$ bits of secret message $m = m_1 || ? ?$ then he can recover m given
Encrypt(pk, m) = $m^e \bmod N$

Theorem[Coppersmith]: If $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree e then in polynomial time (in $\log(N)$, 2^e) we can find all m such that $p(m) = 0 \bmod N$ and $|m| < N^{(1/e)}$

More Weaknesses: Plain RSA with small e

Theorem[Coppersmith]: If $p(x)$ is a polynomial of degree e then in polynomial time (in $\log(N)$, e) we can find all m such that $p(m) = 0 \pmod{N}$ and $|m| < N^{(1/e)}$

Example: $e = 3$, $m = m_1 || m_2$ and attacker knows m_1 ($2k$ bits) and $c = (m_1 || m_2)^e \pmod{N}$, but not m_2 (k bits)

$$p(x) = (2^k m_1 + x)^3 - c$$

Polynomial has a small root mod N at $x = m_2$ and coppersmith's method will find it!

More Weaknesses: Plain RSA with small e

Theorem[Coppersmith]: Can also find small roots of bivariate polynomial $p(x_1, x_2)$

- **Similar Approach used to factor weak RSA secret keys $N=q_1q_2$**
- Weak PRG \rightarrow Can guess many of the bits of prime factors
 - Obtain $\widetilde{q}_1 \approx q_1$ and $\widetilde{q}_2 \approx q_2$
- Coppersmith Attack: Define polynomial $p(.,.)$ as follows
$$p(x_1, x_2) = (x_1 + \widetilde{q}_1)(x_2 + \widetilde{q}_2) - N$$
- **Small Roots of $p(x_1, x_2)$:** $x_1 = q_1 - \widetilde{q}_1$ and $x_2 = q_2 - \widetilde{q}_2$

COMPLETELY BROKEN —

Millions of high-security crypto keys crippled by newly discovered flaw

Factorization weakness lets attackers impersonate key holders and decrypt their data.

DAN GOODIN - 10/16/2017, 7:00 AM



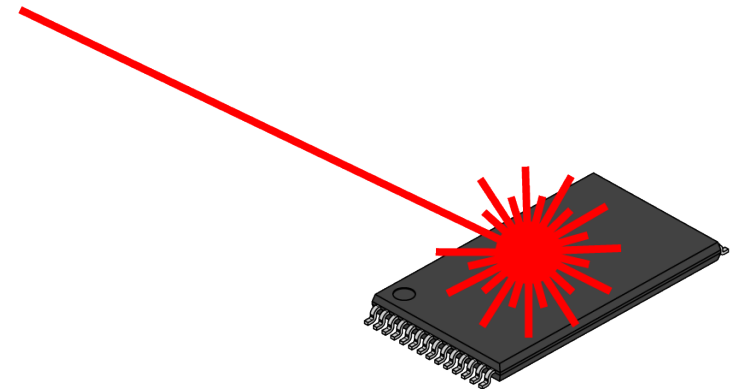
[Enlarge](#) / 750,000 Estonian cards that look like this use a 2048-bit RSA key that can be factored in a matter of days.

A Side Channel Attack on RSA with CRT

- Suppose that decryption is done via Chinese Remainder Theorem for speed.

$$\mathbf{Dec}_{sk}(c) = c^d \bmod N \leftrightarrow (c^d \bmod p, c^d \bmod q)$$

- Attacker has physical access to smartcard
 - Can mess up computation of $c^d \bmod p$
 - Response is $R \leftrightarrow (r, c^d \bmod q)$
 - $R - m \leftrightarrow (r - m \bmod p, 0 \bmod q)$
 - $\text{GCD}(R-m, N) = q$



Recovering Encrypted Message faster than Brute-Force

Brute Force Attack: Suppose we know the secret message $m < 2^n$

We can recover m from ciphertext $c = m^e \bmod N$ in time 2^n

(Solution: Search from $m' < 2^n$ s.t. $c = m'^e \bmod N$)

Claim: Let $m < 2^n$ be a secret message. For some constant $\alpha = \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$.

We can recover m in in time $T = 2^{\alpha n}$ with high probability.

Roughly \sqrt{B} steps to find a secret message $m < B$

Similar to birthday attack

Fixes for Plain RSA

- Approach 1: RSA-OAEP
 - Incorporates random nonce r
 - CCA-Secure (in random oracle model)
- Approach 2: Use RSA to exchange symmetric key for Authenticated Encryption scheme (e.g., AES)
 - Key Encapsulation Mechanism (KEM)
 - Alice has public key (N, e)
 - Bob picks random $r \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ and sends $c = r^e \bmod N$ to Alice
 - Alice and Bob use the symmetric secret key $K = H(r)$ for authenticated encryption
 - Intuition:
 - If attacker never queries $H(r)$ then K can be viewed as truly random secret key (Random Oracle Model)
 - If attacker does query $H(r)$ with non-negligible probability then we can win RSA-Inversion game using A
- More details in future lectures...stay tuned!

Recap and Announcements

- Plain RSA
 - Primality Tests and Key Generation
 - Encryption/Decryption
 - Factoring/RSA-Inversion
 - Attacks on Plain RSA
 - Fixes: RSA-OAEP, Key-Exchange + Authenticated Encryption (more coming)
- Announcements
 - Quiz 4 released today (Due: Saturday (3/27) at 11:30PM on Brightspace)
 - Homework 4 released (Due: April 8th at 11:59 PM on Gradescope)
 - Q4: Programming Assignment
 - Q2: Programming Assignment or Written Solution (You pick!)

CS 555: Week 10: Topic 3

Discrete Log + DDH Assumption

(Recap) Finite Groups

Definition: A (finite) group is a (finite) set \mathbb{G} with a binary operation \circ (over \mathbb{G}) for which we have

- **(Closure:)** For all $g, h \in \mathbb{G}$ we have $g \circ h \in \mathbb{G}$
- **(Identity:)** There is an element $e \in \mathbb{G}$ such that for all $g \in \mathbb{G}$ we have
$$g \circ e = g = e \circ g$$
- **(Inverses:)** For each element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ we can find $h \in \mathbb{G}$ such that $g \circ h = e$. We say that h is the inverse of g .
- **(Associativity:)** For all $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in \mathbb{G}$ we have
$$(g_1 \circ g_2) \circ g_3 = g_1 \circ (g_2 \circ g_3)$$

We say that the group is **abelian** if

- **(Commutativity:)** For all $g, h \in \mathbb{G}$ we have $g \circ h = h \circ g$

Finite Abelian Groups (Examples)

- **Example 1:** \mathbb{Z}_N when \circ denotes addition modulo N
- Identity: 0 , since $0 \circ x = [0+x \text{ mod } N] = [x \text{ mod } N]$.
- Inverse of x ? Set $x^{-1} = N-x$ so that $[x^{-1}+x \text{ mod } N] = [N-x+x \text{ mod } N] = 0$.

- **Example 2:** \mathbb{Z}_N^* when \circ denotes multiplication modulo N
- Identity: 1 , since $1 \circ x = [1(x) \text{ mod } N] = [x \text{ mod } N]$.
- Inverse of x ? Run extended GCD to obtain integers a and b such that
$$ax + bN = \gcd(x, N) = 1$$

Observe that: $x^{-1} = a$. Why?

Cyclic Group

- Let \mathbb{G} be a group with order $m = |\mathbb{G}|$ with a binary operation \circ (over G) and let $g \in \mathbb{G}$ be given consider the set

$$\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots\}$$

Fact: $\langle g \rangle$ defines a subgroup of \mathbb{G} .

- Identity: g^0
- Closure: $g^i \circ g^j = g^{i+j} \in \langle g \rangle$
- g is called a “generator” of the subgroup.

Fact: Let $r = |\langle g \rangle|$ then $g^i = g^j$ if and only if $i = j \pmod r$. Also m is divisible by r .

Finite Abelian Groups (Examples)

Fact: Let p be a prime then \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a cyclic group of order $p-1$.

• **Note:** Number of generators g s.t. of $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ is $\phi(p-1)$

Example (non-generator): $p=7, g=2$

$$\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\}$$

Example (generator): $p=7, g=5$

$$\langle 5 \rangle = \{1, 5, 4, 6, 2, 3\}$$

Discrete Log Experiment $DLog_{A,G}(n)$

1. Run $G(1^n)$ 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. Select $h \in \mathbb{G}$ uniformly at random.
3. Attacker A is given \mathbb{G} , q , g , h and outputs integer x .
4. Attacker wins ($DLog_{A,G}(n)=1$) if and only if $g^x=h$.

We say that the discrete log problem is hard relative to generator G if

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

Diffie-Hellman Problems

Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem (CDH)

- Attacker is given $h_1 = g^{x_1} \in \mathbb{G}$ and $h_2 = g^{x_2} \in \mathbb{G}$.
- Attacker's goal is to find $g^{x_1 x_2} = (h_1)^{x_2} = (h_2)^{x_1}$
- **CDH Assumption:** For all PPT A there is a negligible function negl upper bounding the probability that A succeeds with probability at most $\text{negl}(n)$.

Decisional Diffie-Hellman Problem (DDH)

- Let $z_0 = g^{x_1 x_2}$ and let $z_1 = g^r$, where x_1, x_2 and r are random
- Attacker is given g^{x_1}, g^{x_2} and z_b (for a random bit b)
- Attacker's goal is to guess b
- **DDH Assumption:** For all PPT A there is a negligible function negl such that A succeeds with probability at most $\frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(n)$.

Secure key-agreement with DDH

1. Alice publishes g^{x_A} and Bob publishes g^{x_B}
2. Alice and Bob can both compute $K_{A,B} = g^{x_B x_A}$ but to Eve this key is indistinguishable from a random group element (by DDH)

Remark: Protocol is vulnerable to Man-In-The-Middle Attacks if Bob cannot validate g^{x_A} .

Can we find a cyclic group where DDH holds?

- **Example 1:** \mathbb{Z}_p^* where p is a random n -bit prime.
 - CDH is believed to be hard
 - DDH is **not** hard (Exercise 13.15)
- **Theorem:** Let $p=rq+1$ be a random n -bit prime where q is a large λ -bit prime then the set of r^{th} residues modulo p is a cyclic subgroup of order q . Then $\mathbb{G}_r = \{[h^r \bmod p] \mid h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*\}$ is a cyclic subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of order q .
 - **Remark 1:** DDH is believed to hold for such a group
 - **Remark 2:** It is easy to generate uniformly random elements of \mathbb{G}_r
 - **Remark 3:** Any element (besides 1) is a generator of \mathbb{G}_r

Can we find a cyclic group where DDH holds?

- **Theorem:** Let $p=rq+1$ be a random n -bit prime where q is a large λ -bit prime then the set of r th residues modulo p is a cyclic subgroup of order q . Then $\mathbb{G}_r = \{[h^r \bmod p] \mid h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*\}$ is a cyclic subgroup of \mathbb{Z}_p^* of order q .

- **Closure:** $h^r g^r = (hg)^r$
- **Inverse** of h^r is $(h^{-1})^r \in \mathbb{G}_r$
- **Size** $(h^r)^x = h^{[rx \bmod rq]} = (h^r)^x = h^{r[x \bmod q]} = (h^r)^{[x \bmod q]} \bmod p$

Remark: Two known attacks on Discrete Log Problem for \mathbb{G}_r (Section 9.2).

- First runs in time $O(\sqrt{q}) = O(2^{\lambda/2})$
- Second runs in time $2^{O(\sqrt[3]{n}(\log n)^{2/3})}$

Can we find a cyclic group where DDH holds?

Remark: Two known attacks (Section 9.2).

- First runs in time $O(\sqrt{q}) = O(2^{\lambda/2})$
- Second runs in time $2^{O(\sqrt[3]{n}(\log n)^{2/3})}$, where n is bit length of p

Goal: Set λ and n to balance attacks

$$\lambda = O(\sqrt[3]{n}(\log n)^{2/3})$$

How to sample $p=rq+1$?

- First sample a random λ -bit prime q and
- Repeatedly check if $rq+1$ is prime for a random $n-\lambda$ bit value r

Can we find a cyclic group where DDH holds?

Elliptic Curves Example: Let p be a prime ($p > 3$) and let A, B be constants. Consider the equation

$$y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B \pmod{p}$$

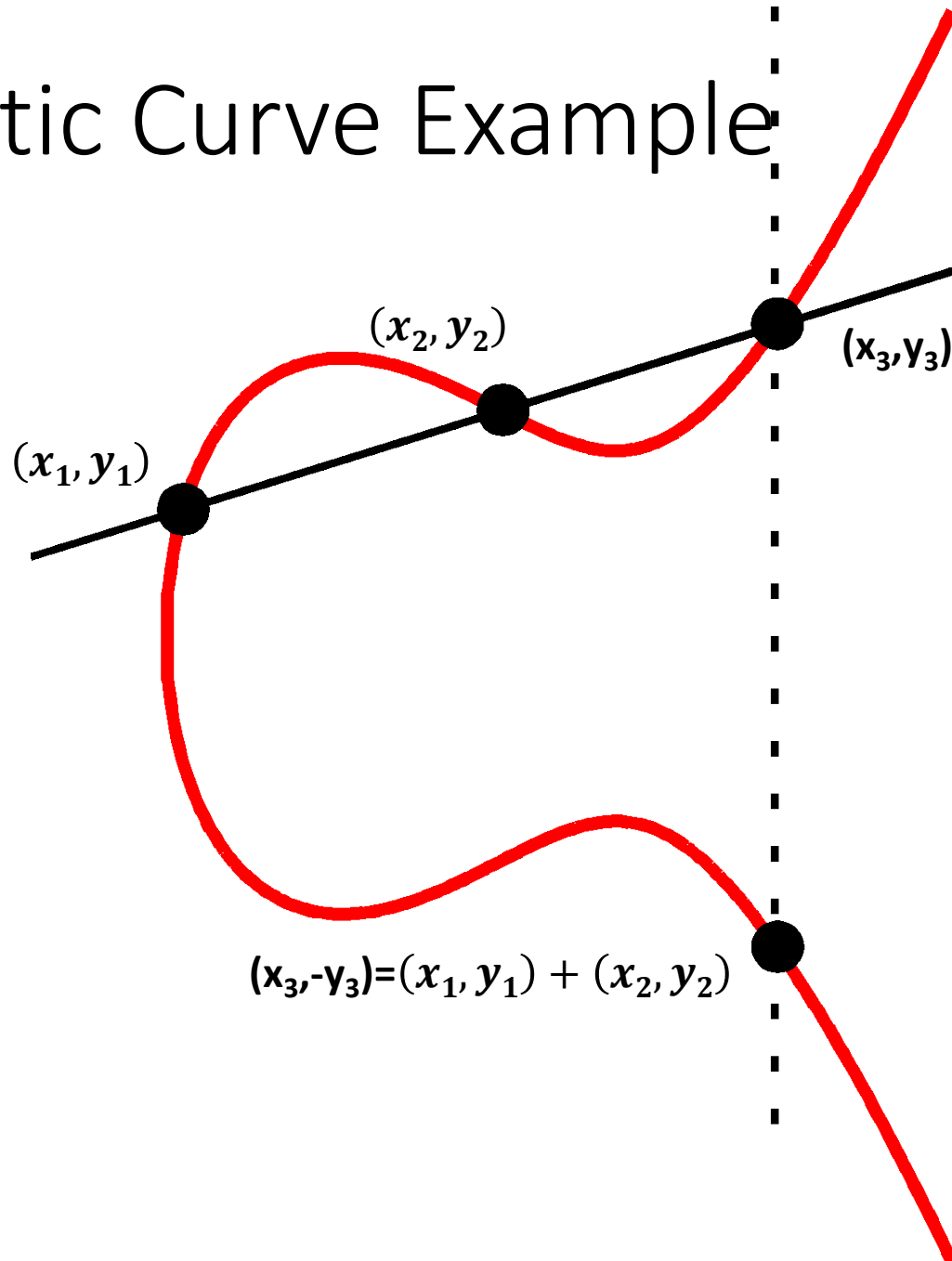
And let

$$E(\mathbb{Z}_p) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2 \mid y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B \pmod{p}\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}$$

Note: \mathcal{O} is defined to be an additive identity $(x, y) + \mathcal{O} = (x, y)$

What is $(x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2)$?

Elliptic Curve Example



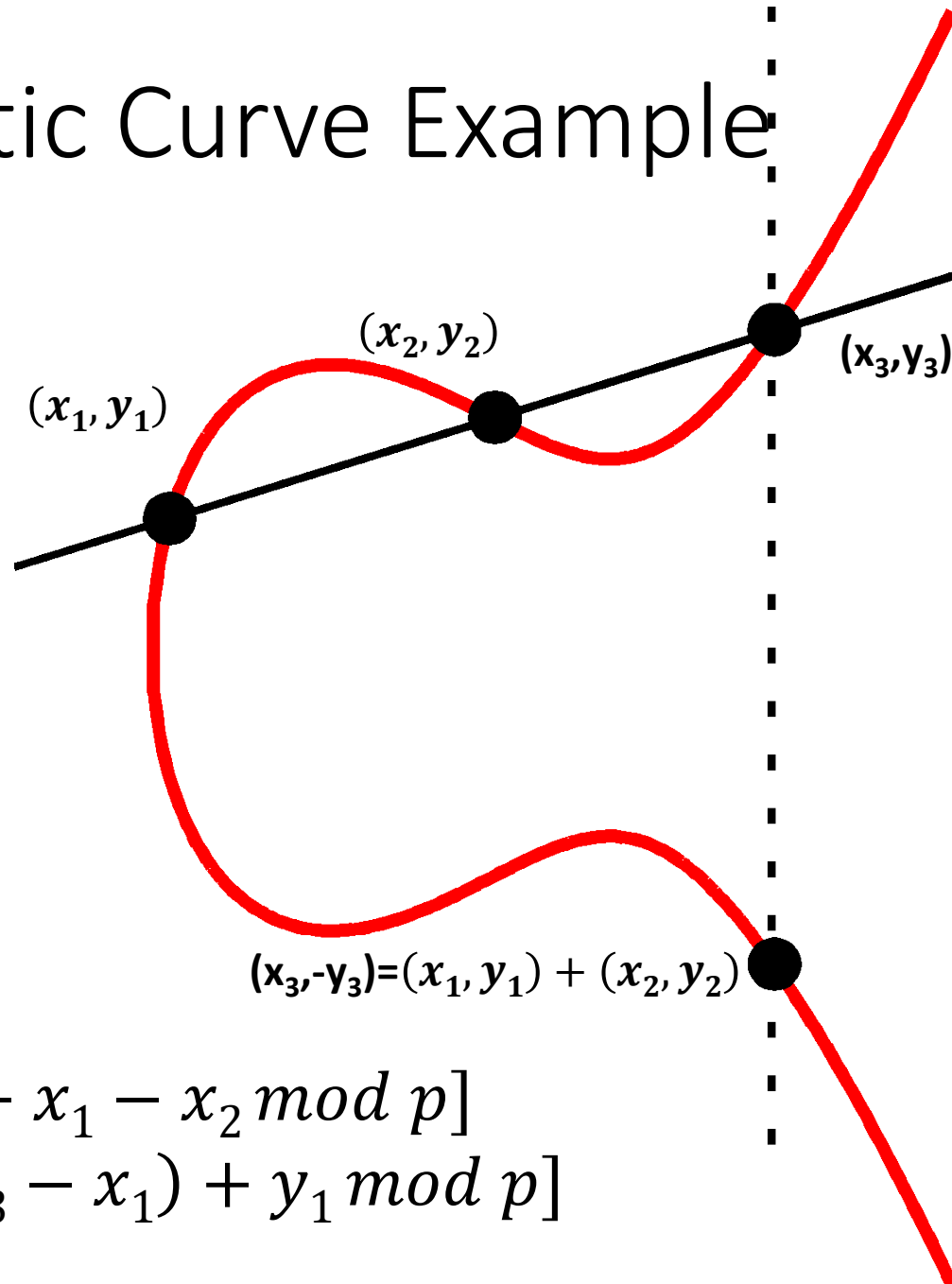
The line passing through (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) has the equation

$$y = m(x - x_1) + y_1 \text{ mod } P$$

Where the slope

$$m = \left[\frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} \text{ mod } p \right]$$

Elliptic Curve Example



Formally, let

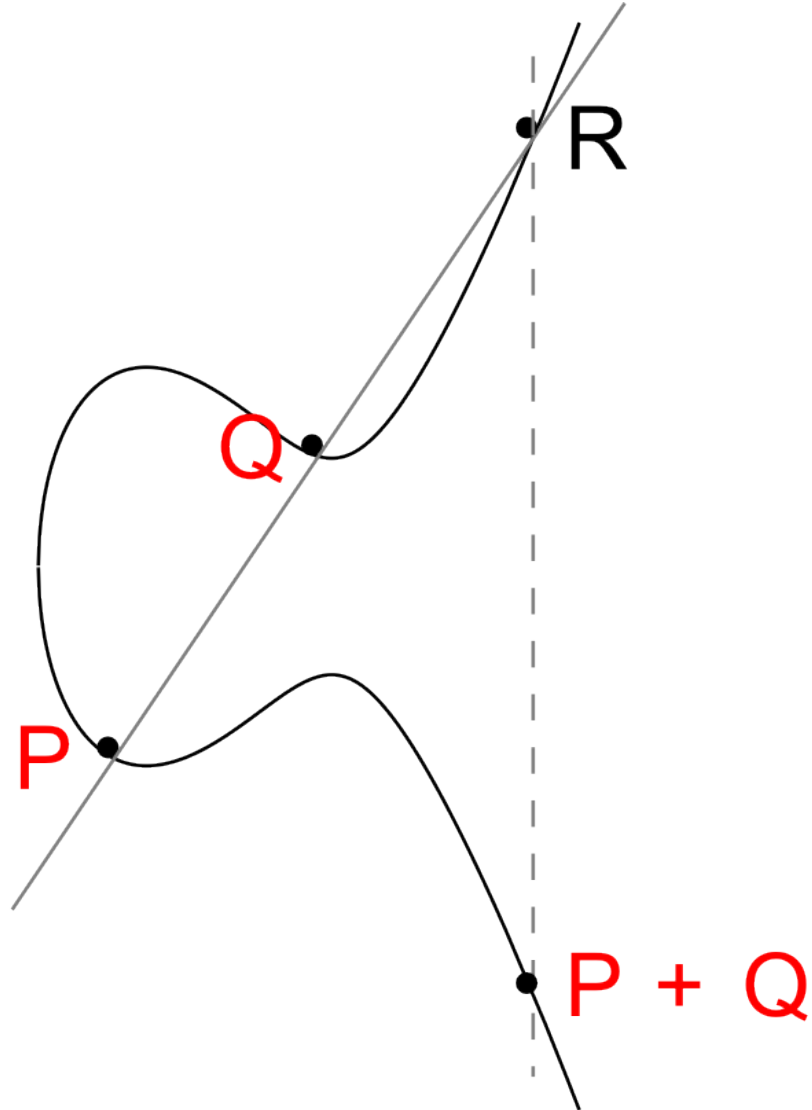
$$m = \left[\frac{y_1 - y_2}{x_1 - x_2} \text{ mod } p \right]$$

Be the slope. Then the line passing through (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) has the equation

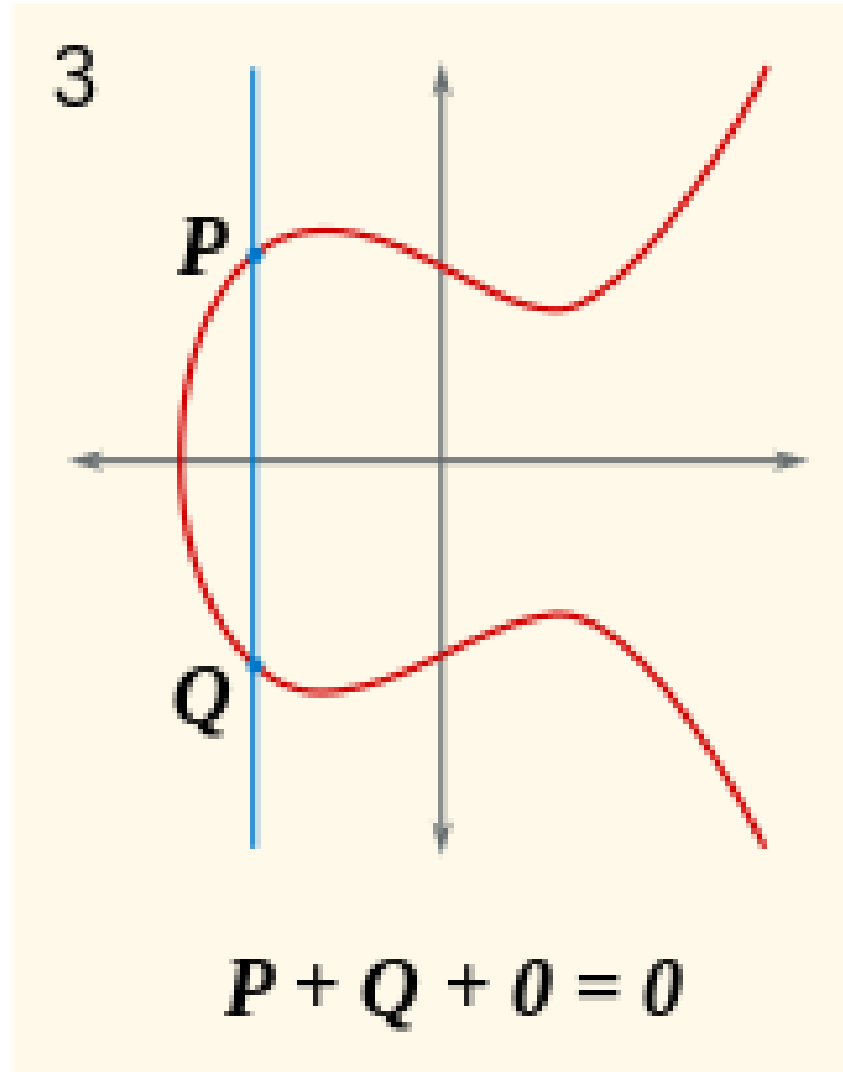
$$y = m(x - x_1) + y_1 \text{ mod } P$$

$$x_3 = [m^2 - x_1 - x_2 \text{ mod } p]$$
$$y_3 = [m(x_3 - x_1) + y_1 \text{ mod } p]$$

$$(m(x - x_1) + y_1)^2$$
$$= x^3 + Ax + B \text{ mod } p$$



Elliptic Curve Example



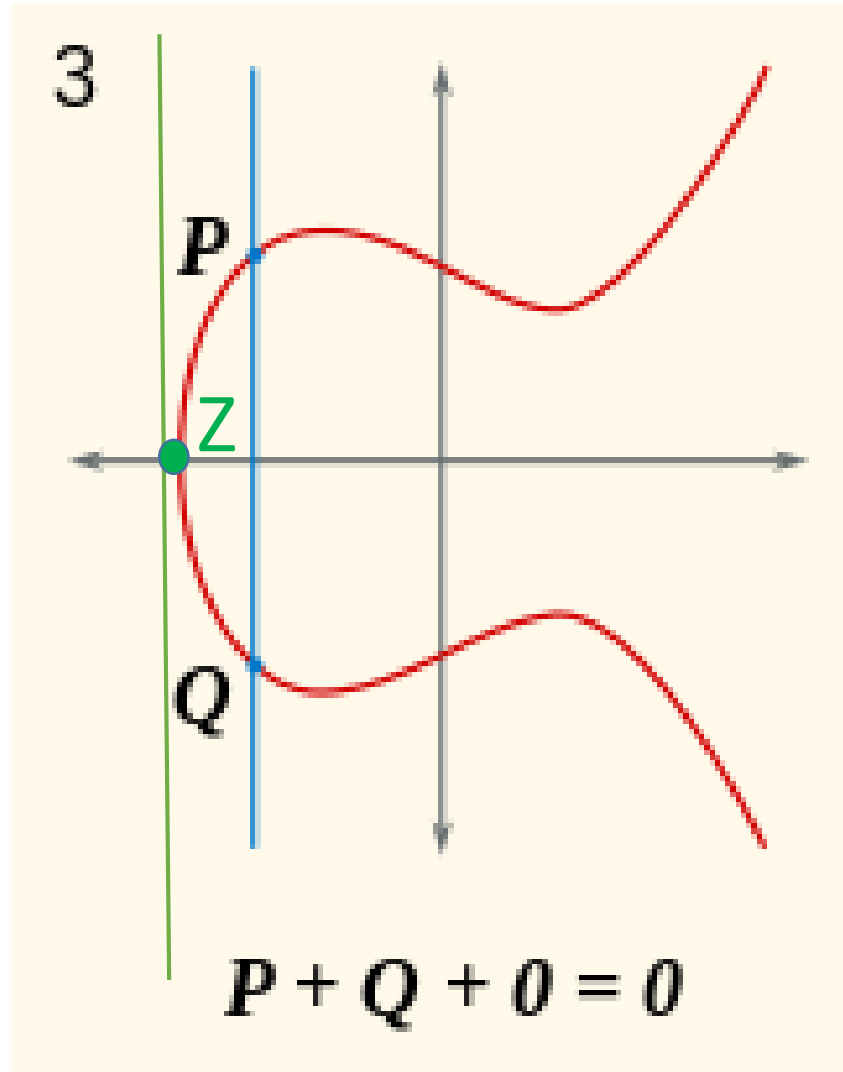
No third point R on the elliptic curve.

$$P + Q = O$$

(Inverse)

Elliptic Curve Special Cases

$$Z+Z=0$$

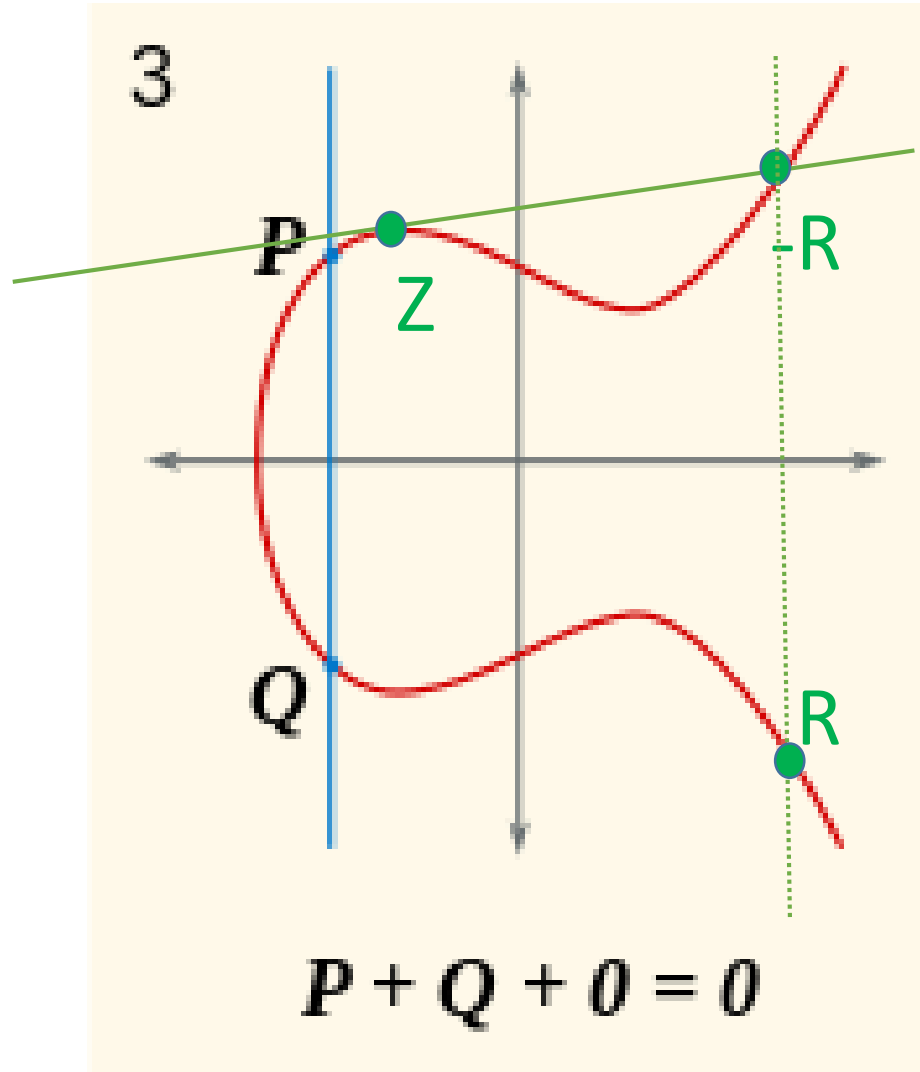


No third point R on the elliptic curve.

$$P+Q = 0$$

(Inverse)

Elliptic Curve Special Cases



$$Z + Z = R$$

How to find R ?

Can we find a cyclic group where DDH holds?

Elliptic Curves Example: Let p be a prime ($p > 3$) and let A, B be constants. Consider the equation

$$y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B \pmod{p}$$

And let

$$E(\mathbb{Z}_p) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}_p^2 \mid y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B \pmod{p}\} \cup \{O\}$$

Fact: $E(\mathbb{Z}_p)$ defines an abelian group

- For *appropriate curves* the DDH assumption is believed to hold
- If you make up your own curve there is a good chance it is broken...
- NIST has a list of recommendations
- Bad Elliptic Curves:
 - Order is $p, p+1$, order divides $p^k - 1$ for “small” k, \dots

Generic Group Model

- Suppose $p < 2^n$ is a prime
 - Fact: Every prime order group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_p, +$
- Random (injective mapping) $\tau: \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$
- Access to Group via Two Oracles
 - $\text{Mult}(\tau(x), \tau(y)) = \tau(x + y \text{ mod } p)$
 - $\text{Inverse}(\tau(x)) = \tau(p - x)$
- **Discrete Log Problem:** Attacker is given $g = \tau(1)$ and $g = \tau(x)$ for a random $0 \leq x < p$.
- **Attacker Goal:** Find x
- **DDH Problem:** Challenger picks random bit b and random values $0 \leq x, y, r < p$
 - Attacker is given $g = \tau(1), g = \tau(x), g = \tau(y)$, and
 - $g = \tau(r)$ if $b=0$
 - $g = \tau(xy)$ if $b=1$

Generic Group Model

- Suppose $p < 2^n$ is a prime
 - Fact: Every prime order group is isomorphic to $\mathbb{Z}_p, +$
- Random (injective mapping) $\tau: \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$
- Access to Group via Two Oracles
 - $\text{Mult}(\tau(x), \tau(y)) = \tau(x + y \bmod p)$
 - $\text{Inverse}(\tau(x)) = \tau(p - x)$
- **Discrete Log Problem:** Attacker is given $g = \tau(1)$ and $g = \tau(x)$ for a random $0 \leq x < p$.
- **Attacker Goal:** Find x
- **Fact:** Any attacker A making at most q queries to group oracles finds x with probability at most $O(q/2^{n/2})$
- **Matching Attack:** Birthday Bound
- **Intuition:** Suppose we know i input/output pairs $(x_1, \tau(x_1)), \dots, (x_i, \tau(x_i))$ but $x \neq x_1, \dots, x_i$
 - Can view x as a yet to be sampled element from $\mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{x_1, \dots, x_i\}$

Generic Group Model

- Suppose $p < 2^n$ is a prime
 - Fact: Every prime order group is isomorphic to \mathbb{Z}_p , +
- Random (injective mapping) $\tau: \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$
- Access to Group via Two Oracles
 - $\text{Mult}(\tau(x), \tau(y)) = \tau(x + y \bmod p)$
 - $\text{Inverse}(\tau(x)) = \tau(p - x)$
- **DDH Problem:** Challenger picks random bit b and random values $0 \leq x, y, r < p$
 - Attacker is given $g = \tau(1), g = \tau(x), g = \tau(y)$, and
 - $g = \tau(r)$ if $b=0$
 - $g = \tau(xy)$ if $b=1$
- **Fact:** Any attacker A making at most q queries to group oracles guesses b with probability at most $\frac{1}{2} + O(q/2^{n/2})$

Week 12 Topic 2: Formalizing Public Key Cryptography

Public Key Encryption: Basic Terminology

- Plaintext/Plaintext Space
 - A message $m \in \mathcal{M}$
- Ciphertext $c \in \mathcal{C}$
- **Public/Private Key Pair $(pk, sk) \in \mathcal{K}$**

Public Key Encryption Syntax

- Three Algorithms

- $\text{Gen}(1^n, R)$ (Key-generation algorithm)

- Input: Random Bits R

- Output: $(pk, sk) \in \mathcal{K}$

- $\text{Enc}_{pk}(m) \in \mathcal{C}$ (Encryption algorithm)

- $\text{Dec}_{sk}(c)$ (Decryption algorithm)

- Input: Secret key sk and a ciphertext c

- Output: a plaintext message $m \in \mathcal{M}$

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

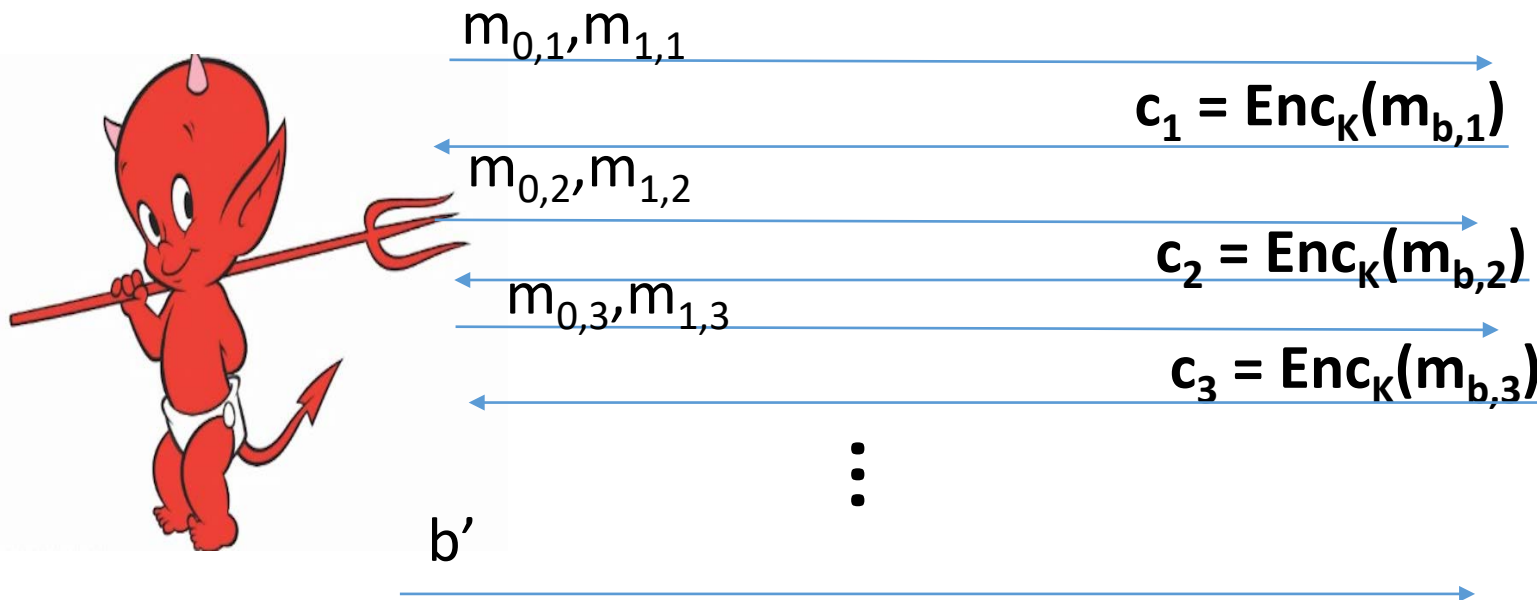
Assumption: Adversary only gets to see pk (not sk)

- **Invariant:** $\text{Dec}_{sk}(\text{Enc}_{pk}(m))=m$

Chosen-Plaintext Attacks

- Model ability of adversary to control or influence what the honest parties encrypt.
- Historical Example: Battle of Midway (WWII).
 - US Navy cryptanalysts were able to break Japanese code by tricking Japanese navy into encrypting a particular message
- Private Key Cryptography

Recap CPA-Security (Symmetric Key Crypto)



Random bit b
 $K = \text{Gen}(\cdot)$



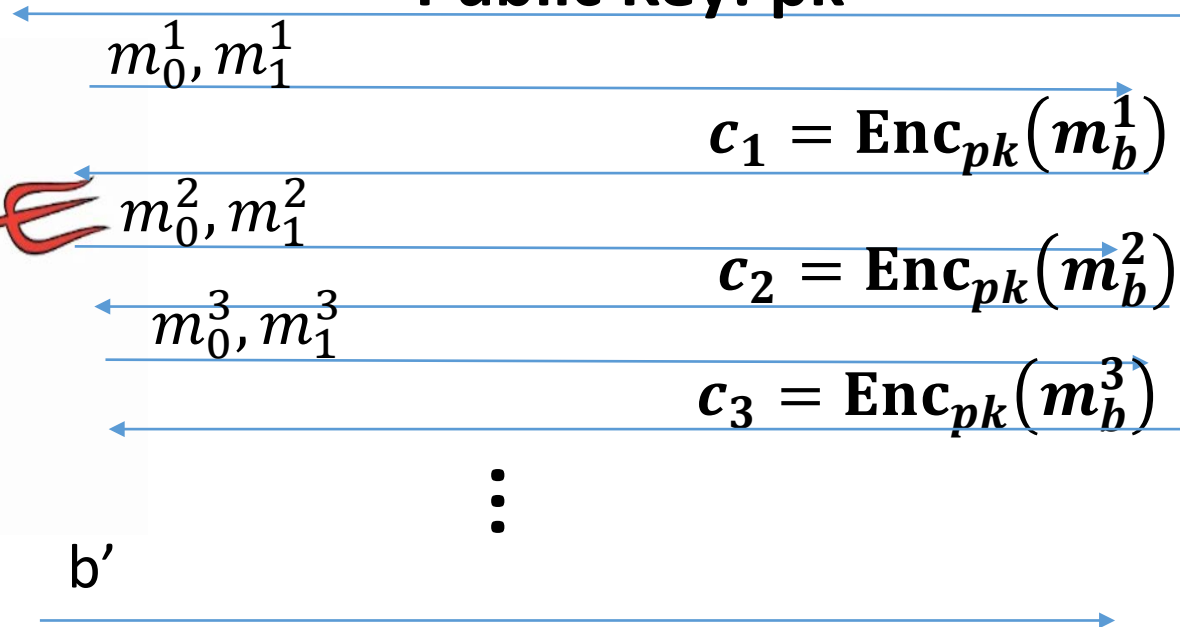
$$\forall PPT A \exists \mu \text{ (negligible) s.t.}$$
$$\Pr[A \text{ Guesses } b' = b] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mu(n)$$

Chosen-Plaintext Attacks

- Model ability of adversary to control or influence what the honest parties encrypt.
- Private Key Crypto
 - Attacker tricks victim into encrypting particular messages
- Public Key Cryptography
 - The attacker already has the public key pk
 - Can encrypt any message s/he wants!
 - CPA Security is critical!

CPA-Security ($\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{LR-cpa}}(n)$)

Public Key: pk



Random bit b
 $(pk, sk) = \text{Gen}(\cdot)$



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

$$\Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{LR-cpa}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mu(n)$$

CPA-Security (Single Message)

Formally, let $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ denote the encryption scheme, call the experiment $\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{LR-cpa}}(n)$ and define a random variable

$$\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{LR-cpa}}(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } b = b' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Π has indistinguishable encryptions under a chosen plaintext attack if for all PPT adversaries A , there is a negligible function μ such that

$$\Pr[\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{LR-cpa}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \mu(n)$$

Private Key Crypto

- CPA Security was stronger than eavesdropping security

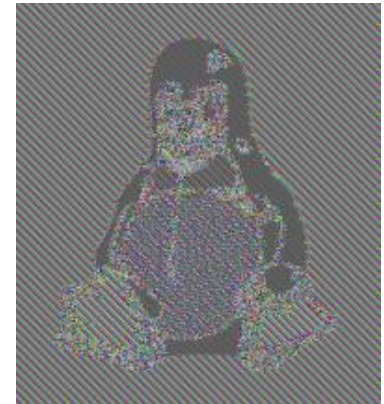
$$\text{Enc}_K(m) = G(K) \oplus m$$

Vs.

$$\text{Enc}_K(m) = \langle r, F_k(r) \oplus m \rangle$$

Public Key Crypto

- **Fact 1:** CPA Security and Eavesdropping Security are Equivalent
 - Key Insight: The attacker has the public key so he doesn't gain anything from being able to query the encryption oracle!
- **Fact 2:** Any deterministic encryption scheme is not CPA-Secure
 - Historically overlooked in many real world public key crypto systems
- **Fact 3:** Plain RSA is **not** CPA-Secure
- **Fact 4:** No Public Key Cryptosystem can achieve Perfect Secrecy!
 - Exercise 11.1
 - **Hint:** Unbounded attacker can keep encrypting the message m using the public key to recover all possible encryptions of m .



Encrypting Longer Messages

Claim 11.7: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ denote a CPA-Secure public key encryption scheme and let $\Pi' = (Gen, Enc', Dec')$ be defined such that

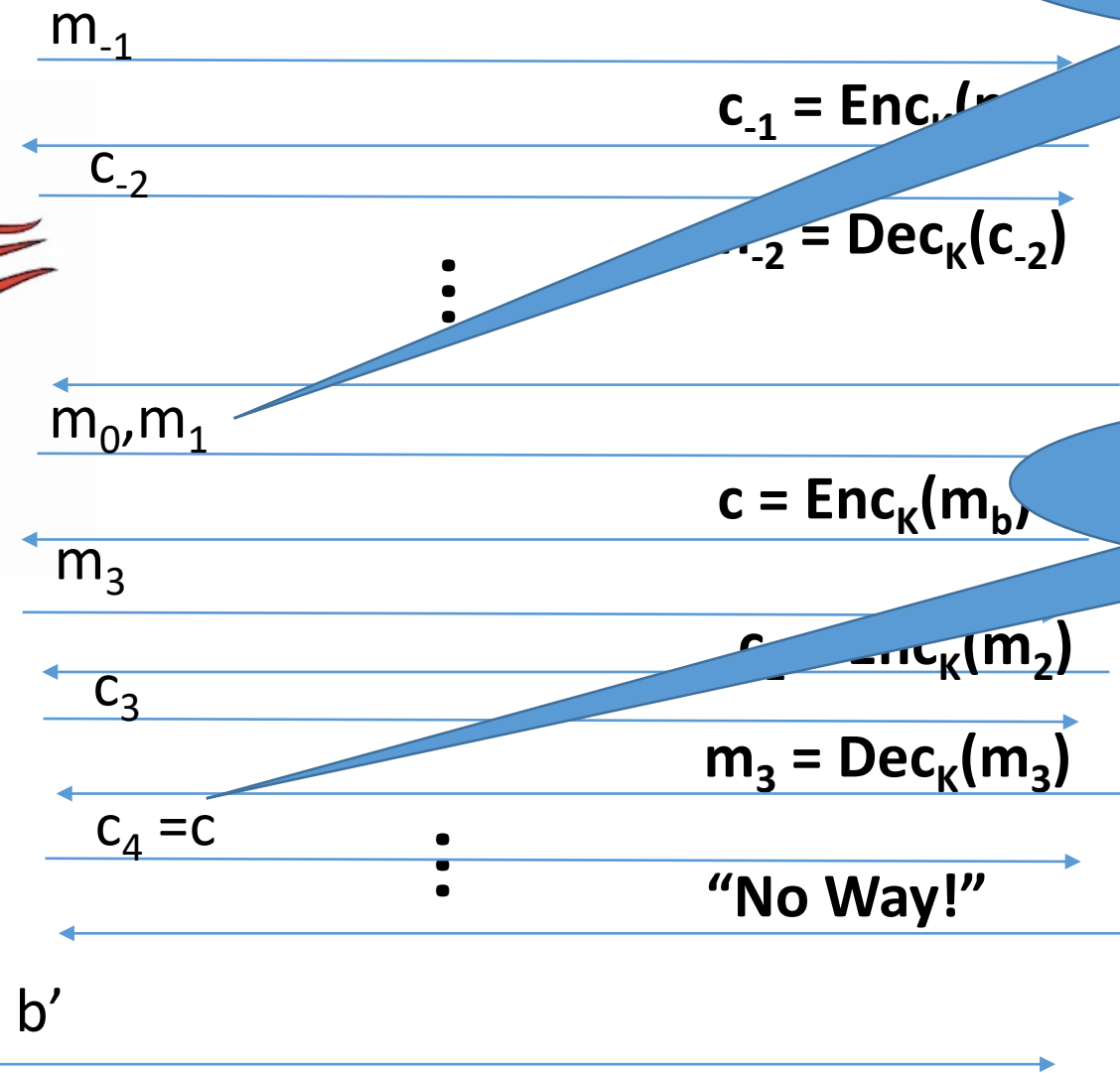
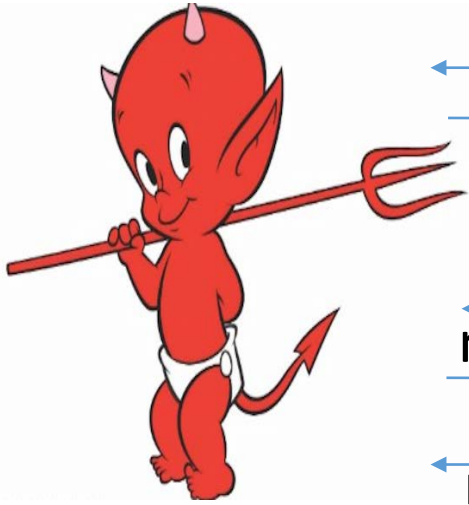
$$\mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_1 \parallel m_2 \parallel \cdots \parallel m_\ell) = \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \parallel \cdots \parallel \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell)$$

Then Π' is also CPA-Secure.

Chosen Ciphertext Attacks

- Models ability of attacker to obtain (partial) decryption of selected ciphertexts
- Attacker might intercept ciphertext c (sent from S to R) and send c' instead.
 - After that attacker can observe receiver's behavior (abort, reply etc...)
- Attacker might send a modified ciphertext c' to receiver R in his own name.
 - E-mail response: Receiver might decrypt c' to obtain m' and include m' in the response to the attacker

Recap CCA-Security (Symmetric)



We could set $m_0 = m_{-1}$ or $m_1 = m_{-2}$



However, we could still flip 1 bit of c and ask challenger to decrypt

Random bit b
 $K = \text{Gen}(\cdot)$



Recap CCA-Security $\left(PrivK_{A,\Pi}^{cca}(n)\right)$

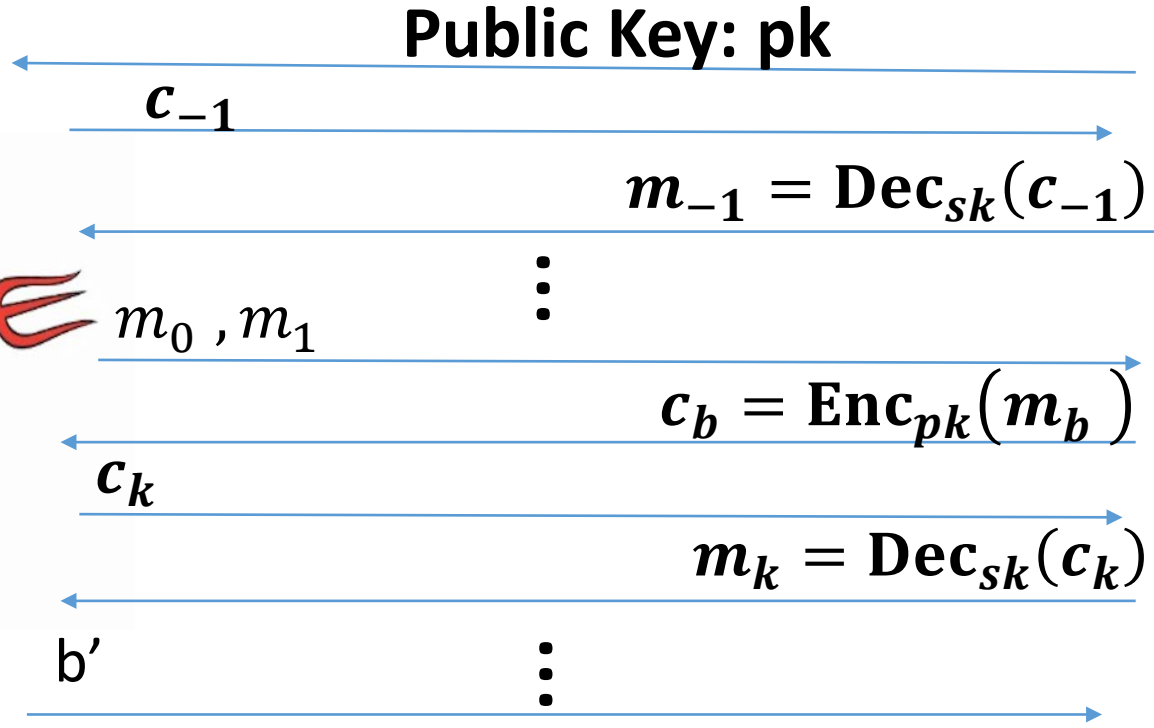
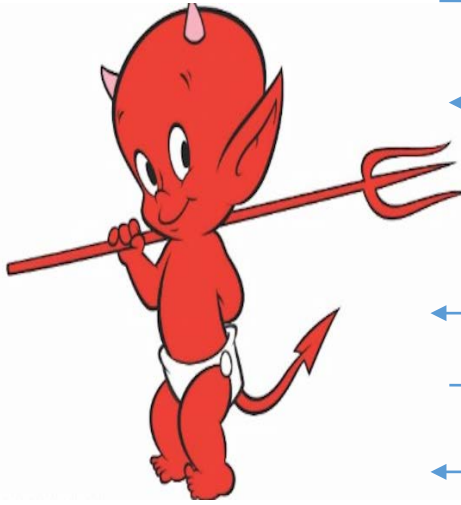
1. Challenger generates a secret key k and a bit b
2. Adversary (A) is given oracle access to Enc_k and Dec_k
3. Adversary outputs m_0, m_1
4. Challenger sends the adversary $c = Enc_k(m_b)$.
5. Adversary maintains oracle access to Enc_k and Dec_k , however the adversary is not allowed to query $Dec_k(c)$.
6. Eventually, Adversary outputs b' .

$$PrivK_{A,\Pi}^{cca}(n) = 1 \text{ if } b = b'; \text{ otherwise } 0.$$

CCA-Security: For all PPT A exists a negligible function $negl(n)$ s.t.

$$\Pr[PrivK_{A,\Pi}^{cca}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + negl(n)$$

CCA-Security ($\text{PubK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{cca}}(n)$)



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

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

Random bit b
 $(pk, sk) = \text{Gen}(\cdot)$



Encrypting Longer Messages

Claim 11.7: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ denote a CPA-Secure public key encryption scheme and let $\Pi' = (Gen, Enc', Dec')$ be defined such that

$$\mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_1 \parallel m_2 \parallel \cdots \parallel m_\ell) = \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \parallel \cdots \parallel \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell)$$

Then Π' is also CPA-Secure.

Claim? Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ denote a CCA-Secure public key encryption scheme and let $\Pi' = (Gen, Enc', Dec')$ be defined such that

$$\mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_1 \parallel m_2 \parallel \cdots \parallel m_\ell) = \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \parallel \cdots \parallel \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell)$$

Then Π' is also CCA-Secure.

Is this second claim true?

Encrypting Longer Messages

Claim? Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ denote a **CCA**-Secure public key encryption scheme and let $\Pi' = (Gen, Enc', Dec')$ be defined such that

$$\mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_1 \parallel m_2 \parallel \cdots \parallel m_\ell) = \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \parallel \cdots \parallel \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell)$$

Then Π' is also **CCA**-Secure.

Is this second claim true?

Answer: No!

Encrypting Longer Messages

Fact: Let $\Pi = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$ denote a **CCA**-Secure public key encryption scheme and let $\Pi' = (Gen, Enc', Dec')$ be defined such that

$$\mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_1 \parallel m_2 \parallel \dots \parallel m_\ell) = \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_1) \parallel \dots \parallel \mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m_\ell)$$

Then Π' is **Provably Not CCA**-Secure.

1. Attacker sets $m_0 = \mathbf{0}^n \parallel \mathbf{1}^n \parallel \mathbf{1}^n$ and $m_1 = \mathbf{0}^n \parallel \mathbf{0}^n \parallel \mathbf{1}^n$ and gets $c_b = \mathbf{Enc}'_{pk}(m_b) = c_{b,1} \parallel c_{b,2} \parallel c_{b,3}$
2. Attacker sets $c' = c_{b,2} \parallel c_{b,3} \parallel c_{b,1}$, queries the decryption oracle and gets

$$\mathbf{Dec}'_{sk}(c') = \begin{cases} \mathbf{1}^n \parallel \mathbf{1}^n \parallel \mathbf{0}^n & \text{if } b=0 \\ \mathbf{0}^n \parallel \mathbf{1}^n \parallel \mathbf{0}^n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

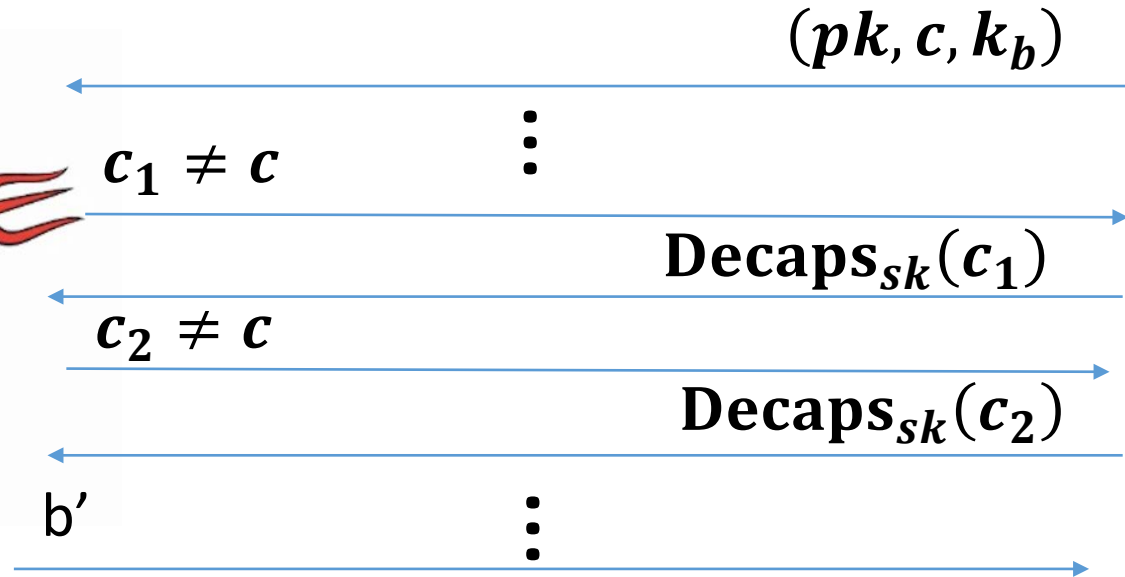
Achieving CPA and CCA-Security

- Plain RSA is not CPA Secure (therefore, not CCA-Secure)
- El-Gamal (future) is CPA-Secure, but not CCA-Secure
- Tools to obtain CCA-Security in Public Key Setting
 - RSA-OAEP, Cramer-Shoup
 - Key Encapsulation Mechanism

Key Encapsulation Mechanism (KEM)

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

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



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

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

Random bit b
 $(pk, sk) = \text{Gen}(\cdot)$



$(c, k_0) = \text{Encaps}_{pk}(\cdot)$
 $k_1 \leftarrow \{0, 1\}_{101}^n$

CCA-Secure Encryption from CCA-Secure KEM

$$\mathbf{Enc}_{pk}(m; R) = \langle c, \mathbf{Enc}_k^*(m) \rangle$$

Where

- $(c, k) \leftarrow \mathbf{Encaps}_{pk}(\mathbf{1}^n; R)$,
- \mathbf{Enc}_k^* is a CCA-Secure symmetric key encryption algorithm, and
- \mathbf{Encaps}_{pk} is a CCA-Secure KEM.

Theorem 11.14: \mathbf{Enc}_{pk} is CCA-Secure public key encryption scheme.

CCA-Secure KEM in the Random Oracle Model

- Let (N, e, d) be an RSA key ($pk = (N, e)$, $sk = (N, d)$).

$$\text{Encaps}_{pk}(1^n, R) = (r^e \bmod N, k = H(r))$$

- Remark 1: k is completely random string unless the adversary can query random oracle H on input r .
- Remark 2: If Plain-RSA is hard to invert for a random input then PPT attacker finds r with negligible probability.

Using a CCA-Secure KEM

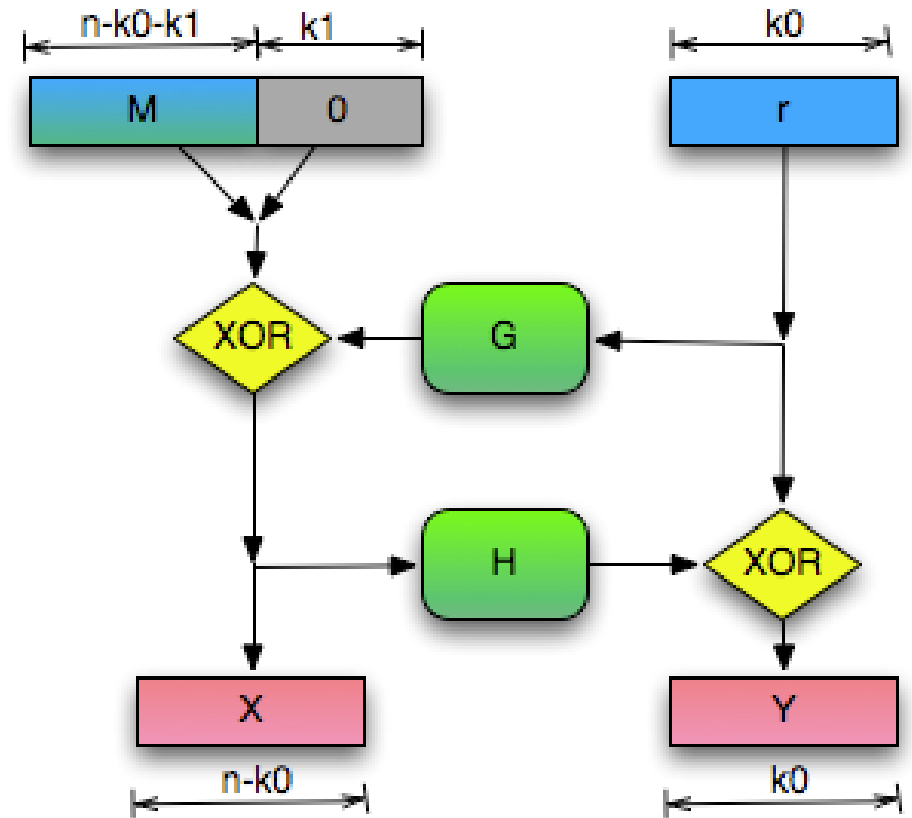
- Let (N, e, d) be an RSA key ($pk = (N, e)$, $sk = (N, d)$).

$$\text{Enc}_{pk}(m; R) = (c, \text{AEnc}_k(m)) \text{ where} \\ c = \text{Encaps}_{pk}(1^n, R)$$

- Remark 1: k is completely random string unless the adversary can query random oracle H on input r .
- Remark 2: If Plain-RSA is hard to invert for a random input then PPT attacker finds r with negligible probability.

RSA-OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding)

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



Recap RSA-Assumption

RSA-Experiment: $\text{RSA-INV}_{A,n}$

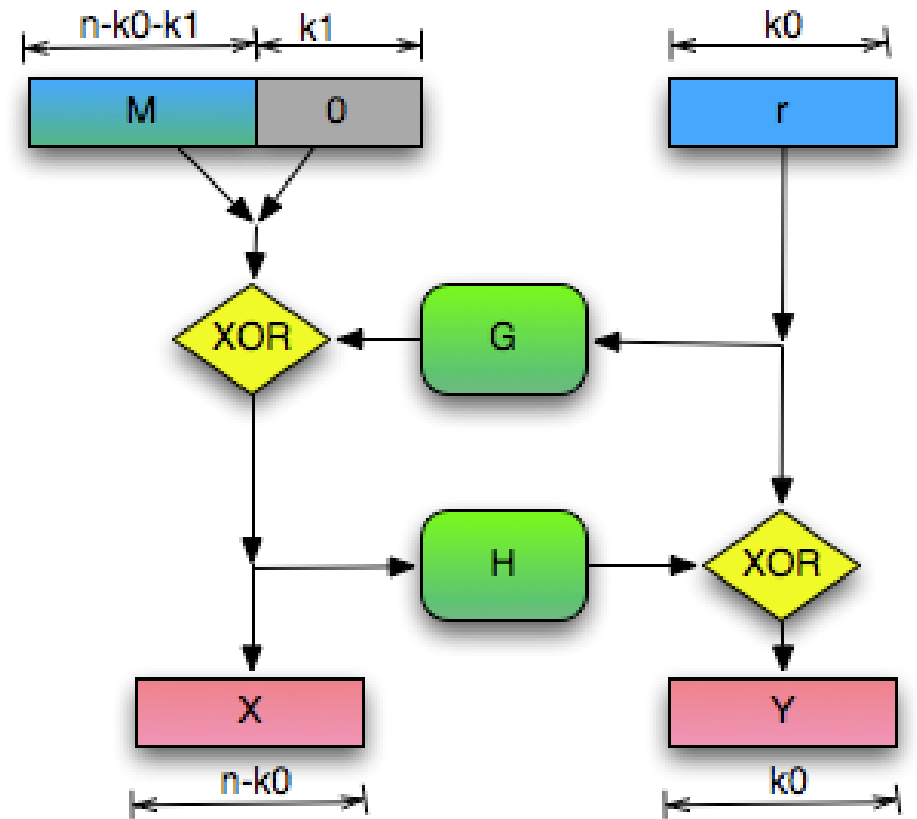
1. **Run KeyGeneration(1^n) to obtain (N,e,d)**
2. **Pick uniform $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$**
3. Attacker A is given N, e, y and outputs $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
4. Attacker wins ($\text{RSA-INV}_{A,n}=1$) if $x^e = y \pmod N$

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

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)

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