

CS 4770: Cryptography

CS 6750: Cryptography and
Communication Security

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Outline

- ElGamal encryption
 - Based on Diffie-Hellman key exchange
 - CPA secure
- Digital signatures
 - Integrity in public-key world
 - Equivalent of MACs
 - Public verifiability
- Distribution of public keys

The ElGamal system (a modern view)

G : finite cyclic group of order q

We construct a pub-key enc. system (Gen, Enc, Dec):

- Key generation Gen:
 - choose random generator g in G and random x in Z_q
 - output $sk = x$, $pk = (g, h=g^x)$

Enc($pk=(g,h)$, m) :

$$y \leftarrow Z_q, u \leftarrow g^y, k \leftarrow h^y$$

$$c \leftarrow k \cdot m$$

output (u, c)

Dec($sk=x$, (u,c)) :

$$k \leftarrow u^x$$

$$m \leftarrow k^{-1} \cdot c$$

output m

Decisional Diffie-Hellman

Let \mathbf{G} be a finite cyclic group and \mathbf{g} generator of \mathbf{G}

$$\mathbf{G} = \{ 1, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{g}^2, \mathbf{g}^3, \dots, \mathbf{g}^{q-1} \}$$

q is the order of \mathbf{G}

Definition: We say that **DDH is hard in \mathbf{G}** if for all PPT adversaries D :

$$|\Pr[D(\mathbf{g}^x, \mathbf{g}^y, \mathbf{g}^{xy}) = 1] - \Pr[D(\mathbf{g}^x, \mathbf{g}^y, \mathbf{g}^z) = 1] | < \text{negligible}$$

\mathbf{G} , q and \mathbf{g} are public and known to D

x, y, z are chosen uniformly at random in $\{1, \dots, q-1\}$

Security

Theorem: Let G be a cyclic group of order q . Assuming that the DDH problem is hard, then El-Gamal encryption is CPA secure.

In particular, for every PPT adversary A attacking the CPA security of El-Gamal:

$$\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Pi, A}^{\text{CPA}}(n) = 1] = 1/2 + \text{negligible}(n)$$

Proof of security - Intuition

Π

$\text{Enc}(\text{pk}=(g,h), m)$

$y \leftarrow Z_q, u \leftarrow g^y$
 $c \leftarrow h^y \cdot m (= g^{xy} \cdot m)$
output (u, c)

1. Success of adversary to break Π and Π' in CPA game is similar

Under the assumption that DDH is hard !

Π'

$\text{Enc}'(\text{pk}=(g,h), m)$

$y \leftarrow Z_q, u \leftarrow g^y, z \leftarrow Z_q$
 $c \leftarrow g^z \cdot m$
output (u, c)

2. Success of adversary to break Π' in CPA game is negligible

Malleability of El-Gamal

To encrypt message m :

- $c = (g^y, h^y \cdot m)$, for y random

Multiply second part of ciphertext by α

- $c' = (g^y, h^y \cdot m \cdot \alpha)$ is a valid encryption of $m \cdot \alpha$

El-Gamal is malleable and not CCA-secure

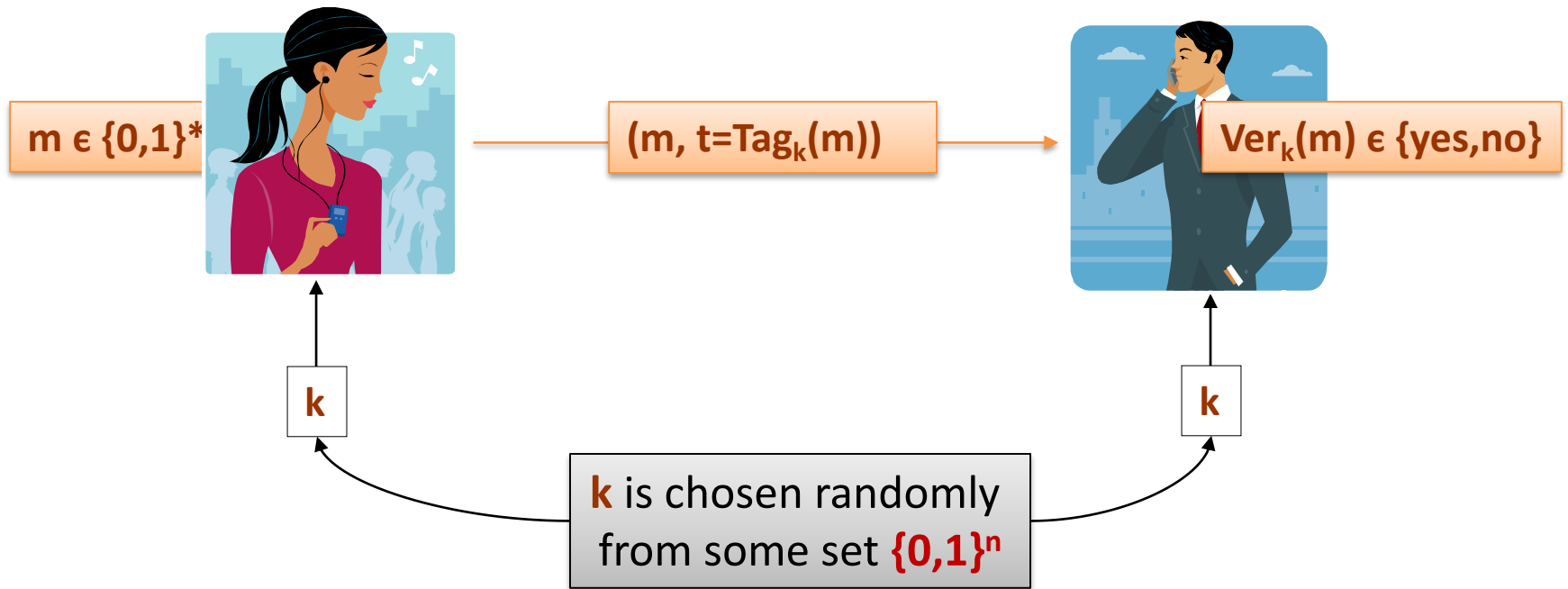
Signature schemes

digital signature schemes

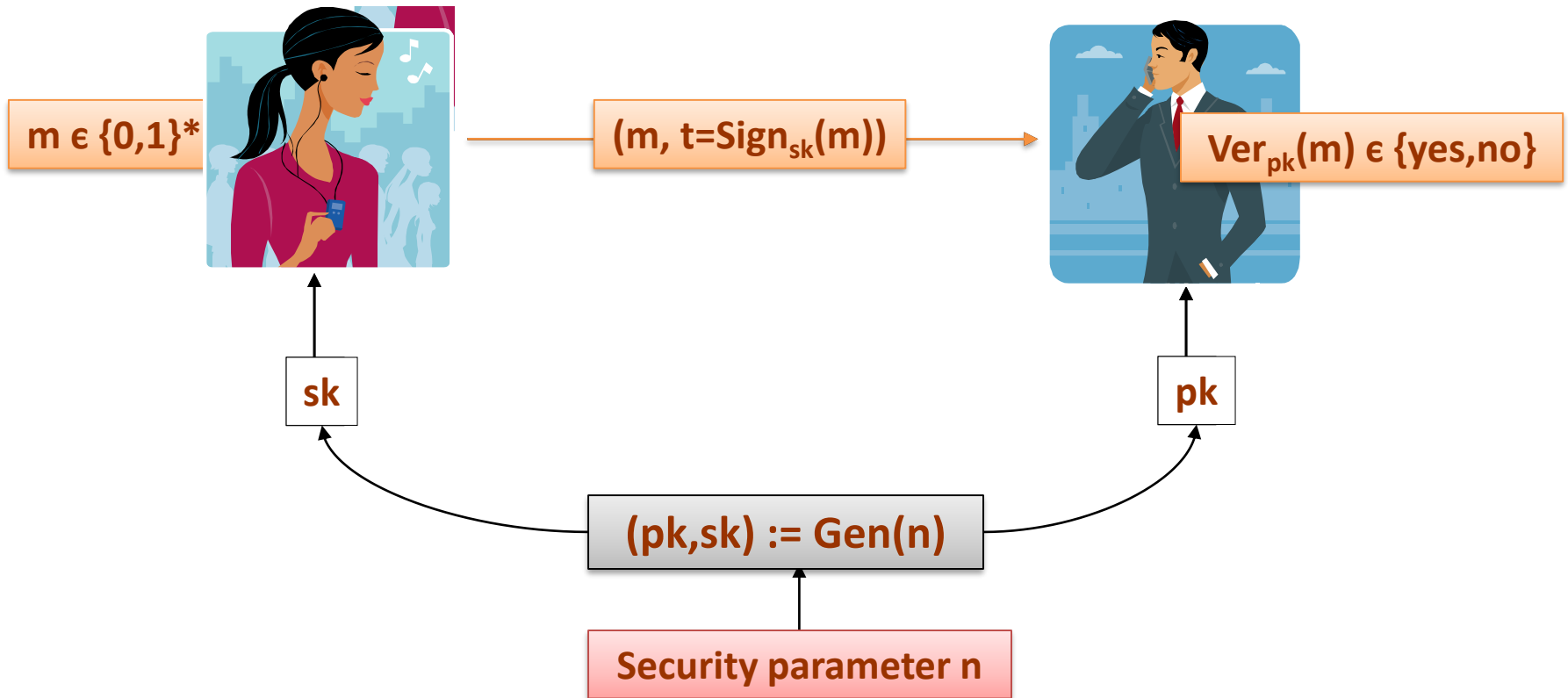


MACs in the public-key setting

Message Authentication Codes



Signature Schemes



Advantages of signature schemes

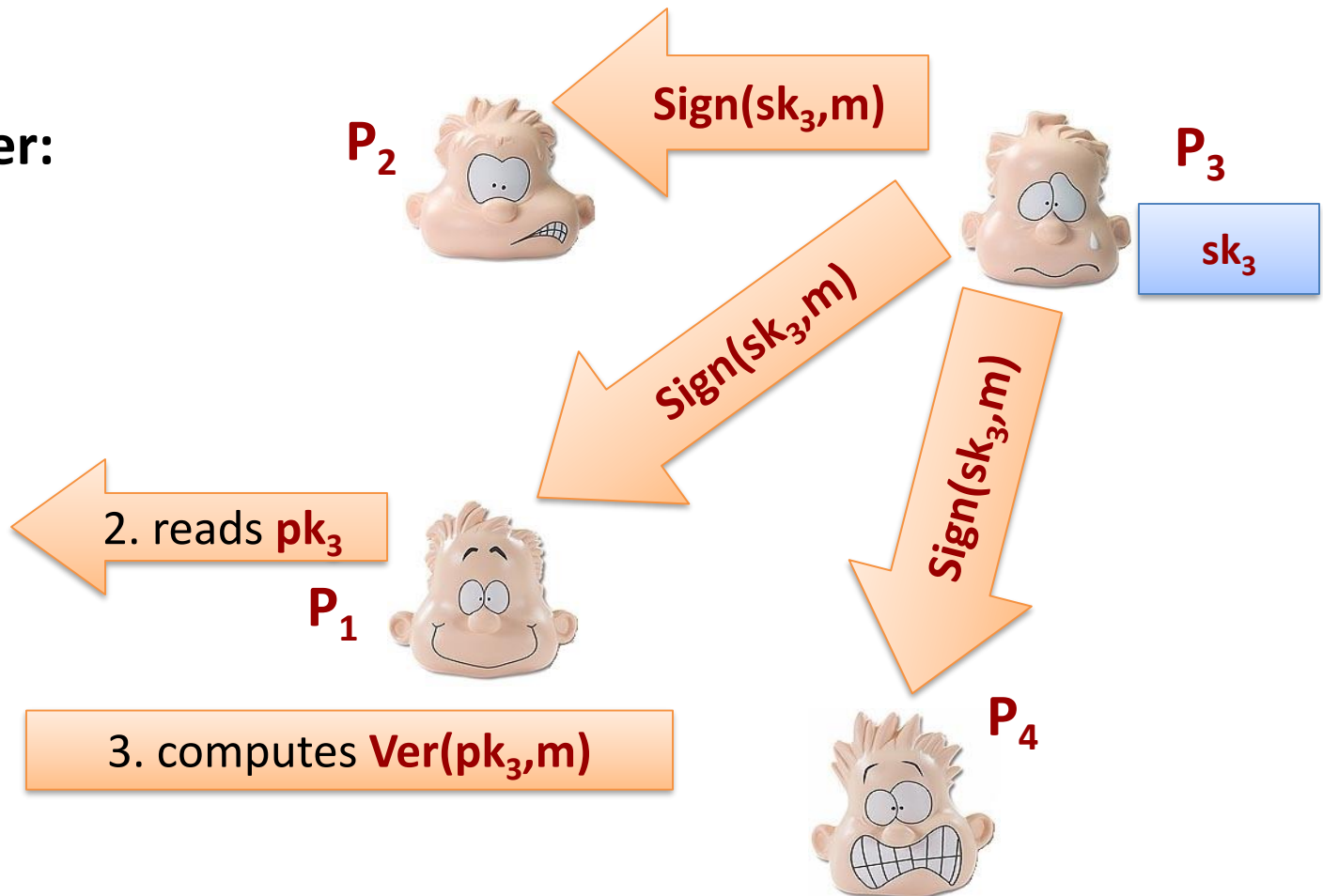
Digital signatures are:

- 1. publicly verifiable**
- 2. transferable**
- 3. provide non-repudiation**

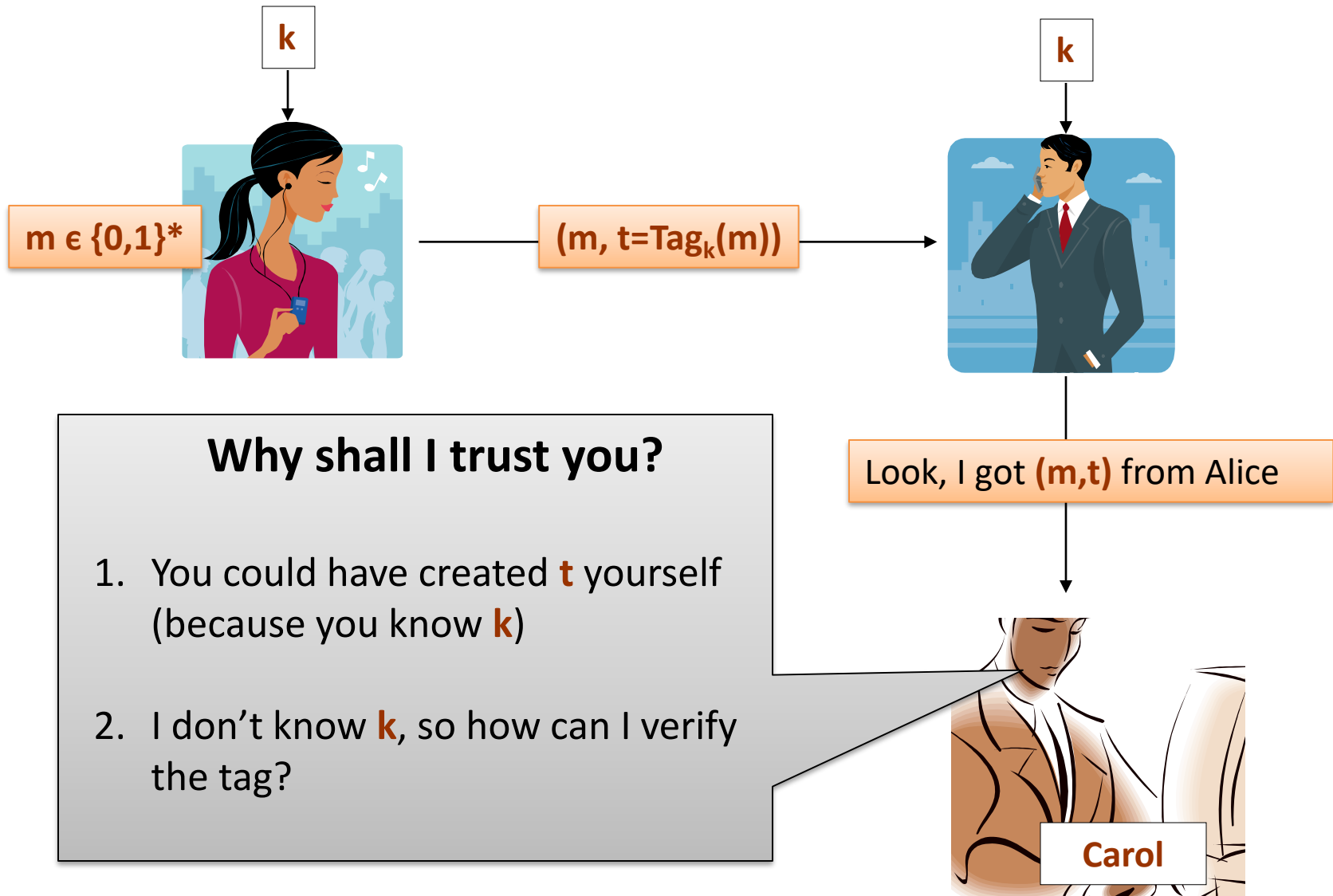
Anyone can verify the signatures

public register:

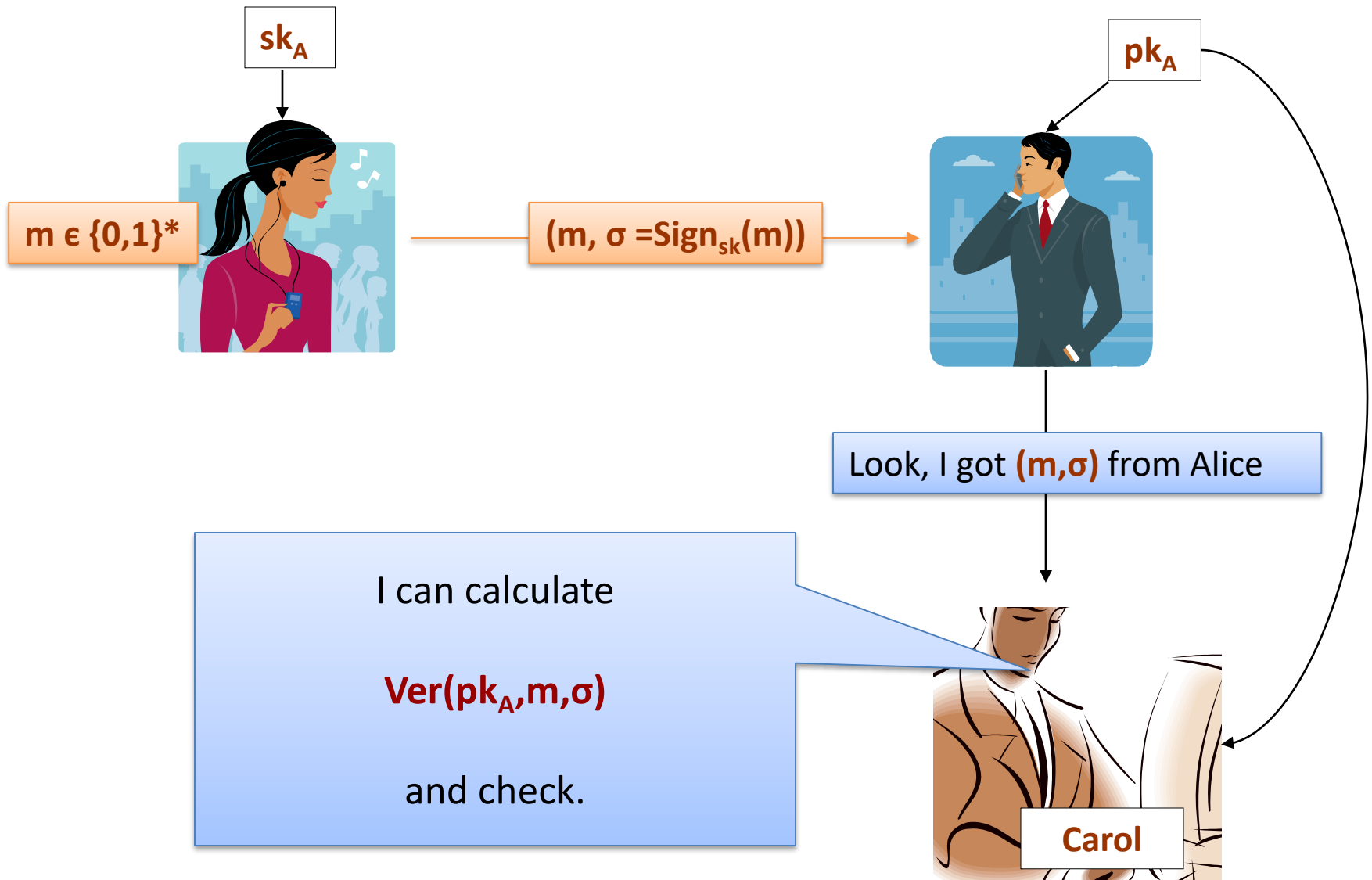
pk_1
pk_2
pk_3
pk_4
pk_5



Look at the MACs...



Signatures are publicly-verifiable!



So, the signatures are transferable



Alice

sk_A

$\sigma = \text{Sign}(sk_A, m)$

"Alice signed m "

I believe it!

"Alice signed m "

I believe it!

"Alice signed m "

I believe it!



P_1

(m, σ)



P_2

(m, σ)



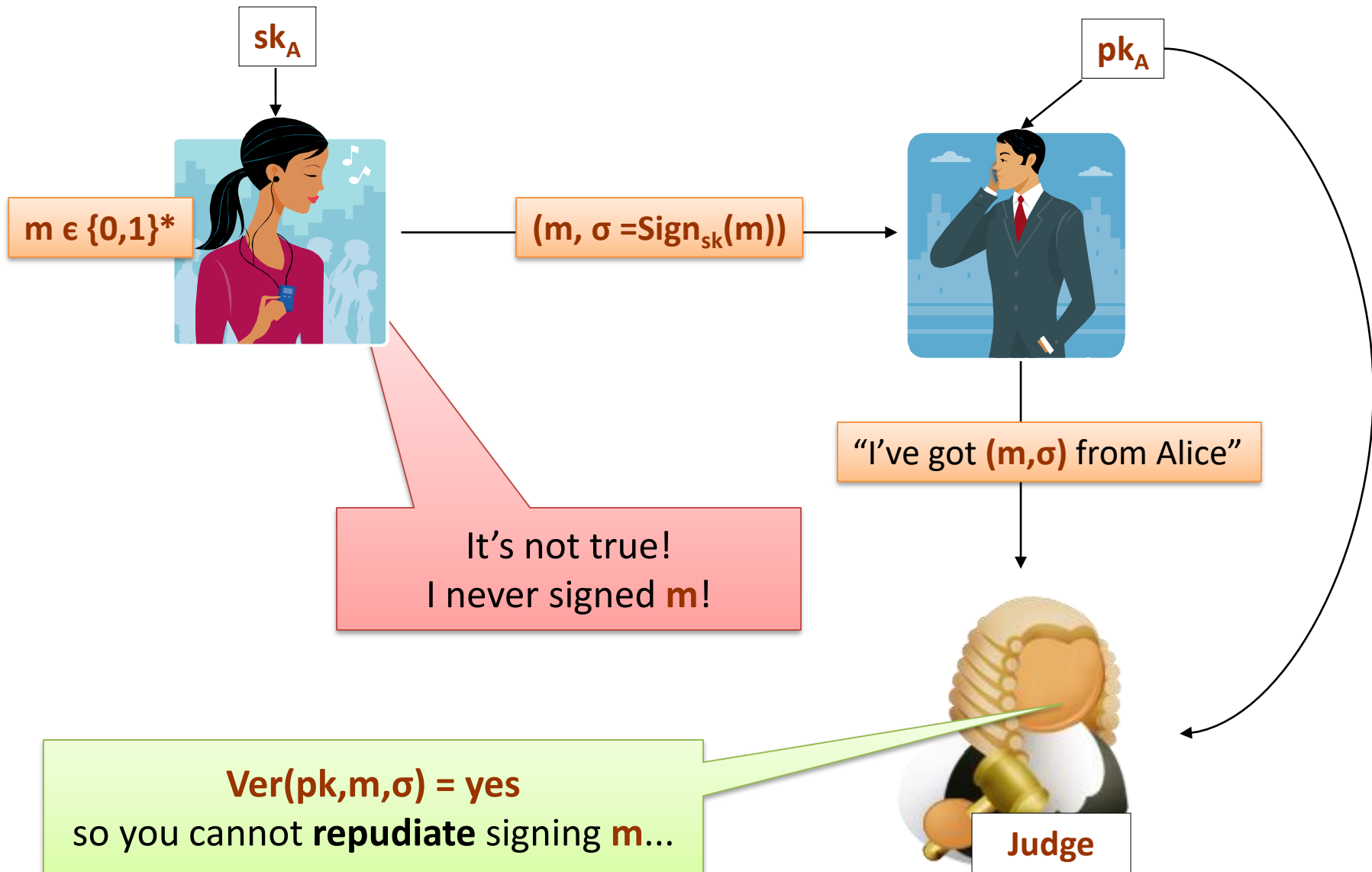
P_3

(m, σ)



P_4

Non-repudiation



Digital Signature Schemes

A **digital signature scheme** is a tuple **(Gen, Sign, Ver)** of poly-time algorithms, such that:

- the **key-generation** algorithm **Gen** takes as input a security parameter **n** and outputs a pair **(pk, sk)**,
- the **signing** algorithm **Sign** takes as input a key **sk** and a message **$m \in \{0,1\}^*$** and outputs a signature **σ** ,
- the **verification** algorithm **Ver** takes as input a key **pk**, a message **m** and a signature **σ** , and outputs a bit **$b \in \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$** .

If **$\text{Ver}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = \text{yes}$** then we say that **$\sigma$** is a **valid signature on the message m**.

Correctness

We require that it always holds that:

$\text{Ver}_{pk}(m, \text{Sign}_{sk}(m)) = \text{Yes}$ with high probability

What remains is to define **security**.

How to define security?

We have to assume that the adversary can see some pairs

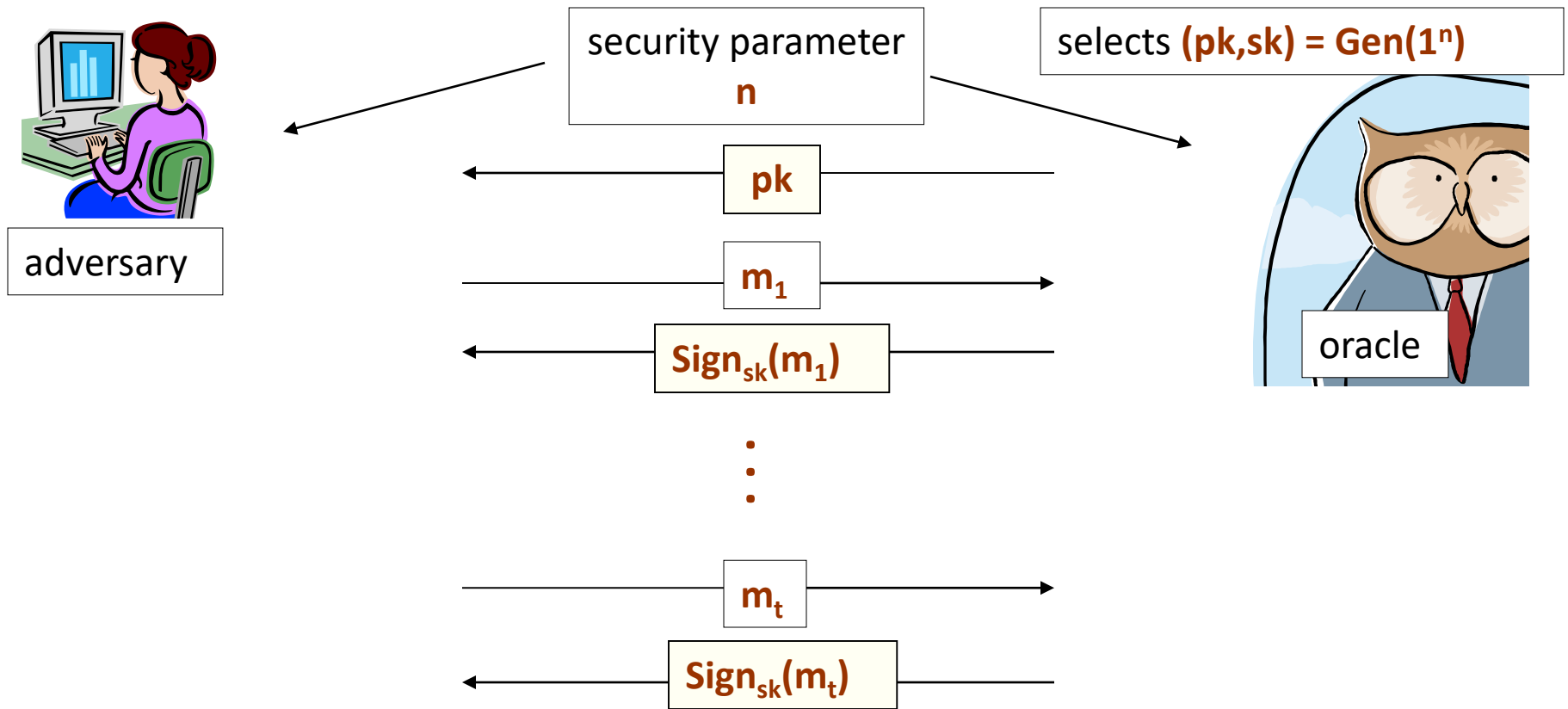
$$(m_1, \sigma_1), \dots, (m_t, \sigma_t)$$

As in the case of MACs, we need to specify:

1. how the messages m_1, \dots, m_t are chosen,
2. what is the goal of the adversary.

We assume that

1. The adversary is allowed to choose m_1, \dots, m_t .
2. The **goal of the adversary** is to produce a valid signature on some m' such that $m' \neq m_1, \dots, m_t$.



We say that the adversary **breaks the signature scheme** if at the end she outputs (m', σ') such that

1. $\text{Ver}(m', \sigma') = \text{yes}$
2. $m' \neq m_1, \dots, m_t$

The security definition

sometimes we just say: **unforgeable** (if the context is clear)

We say that **(Gen, Sign, Ver)** is **existentially unforgeable under an adaptive chosen-message attack** if



P(A breaks it) is negligible (in **n**)

polynomial-time
adversary **A**

Security experiment for Signatures

- Experiment $\text{Exp}_{\Pi, A}^{\text{Sign}}(n)$:
 1. Choose $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n)$
 2. $m, \sigma \leftarrow A^{\text{Sign}_{sk}(\cdot)}(pk)$
 3. Output 1 if $\text{Ver}_{pk}(m, \sigma) = 1$ and m was not queried to the $\text{Sign}()$ oracle
 4. Output 0 otherwise

$(\text{Gen}, \text{Tag}, \text{Ver})$ is a **secure (existential unforgeable)** signature if:

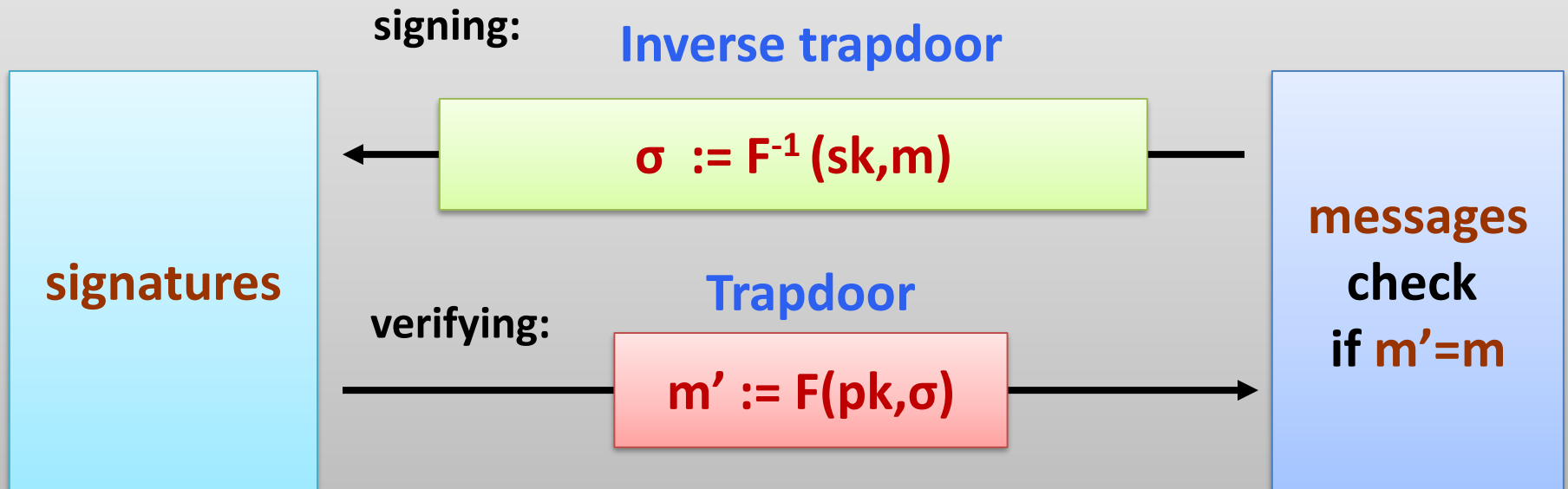
For every **PPT** adversary A :

$\Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Pi, A}^{\text{Sign}}(n) = 1]$ is negligible in n

How to design secure signature schemes?

Remember this idea?

$\{F, F^{-1} : X \rightarrow X\}_{(pk, sk) \in \text{keys}}$ -- a trapdoor permutation



In general it's not that simple.

The “handbook RSA signatures”

N = pq - RSA modulus

e is such that **$\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$** ,

d is such that **$ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$**

$\text{Sign}_{(d,N)}(m) = m^d \pmod N$

and

$\text{Ver}_{(e,N)}(m, \sigma) = \text{yes}$ iff $\sigma^e = m \pmod N$

Correctness:

$$\begin{aligned}\sigma^e &= (m^d)^e \\ &= m^{de} \\ &= m^1 \\ &= m\end{aligned}$$

Problems with the “handbook RSA” [1/2]

A “no-message attack”:

The adversary can forge a signature on a “random” message **m**.

Given the public key **(N,e)**:

he just selects a random **σ** and computes

$$\mathbf{m} = \sigma^e \bmod \mathbf{N}.$$

Trivially, **σ** is a valid signature on **m**.

Problems with the “handbook RSA” (2/2)

How to forge a signature on an arbitrary message m ?
Use the homomorphic properties of RSA.

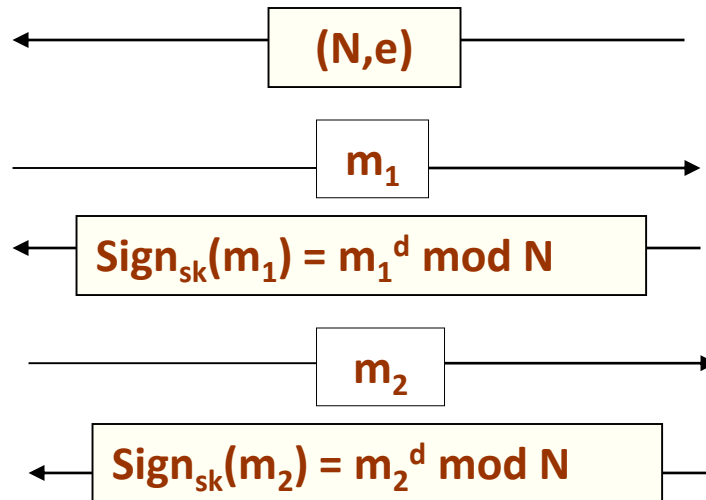


chooses:

1. random m_1
2. $m_2 := m / m_1 \bmod N$

computes ($\bmod N$):

$$\begin{aligned} & m_1^d \cdot m_2^d \\ = & (m_1 \cdot m_2)^d \\ = & m^d \end{aligned}$$



this is a valid signature on m

Solution

Before computing the RSA function – apply hash function **H**.

N = pq, such that **p** and **q** are large random primes
e is such that **gcd(e, φ(N)) = 1**
d is such that **ed = 1 (mod φ(N))**

Sign_d: Z_N^{*} → Z_N^{*} is defined as:
Sign(m) = H(m)^d mod N.

Ver_e is defined as:
Ver_e(m,σ) = yes iff σ^e = H(m) (mod N)

Hash-and-sign paradigm

Fact (security of the **Full Domain Hash**)

- Let $H : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow Z_N^*$ be a hash function modeled as a **random function**.
- Suppose the **RSA assumption** holds

Then the “**hashed RSA**” is existentially unforgeable signature

hashed RSA

$N = pq$, such that p and q are large random primes
 e is such that $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$
 d is such that $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$

$\text{Sign}_d: Z_N^* \rightarrow Z_N^*$ is defined as:
 $\text{Sign}(m) = H(m)^d \pmod{N}$.

Ver_e is defined as:
 $\text{Ver}_e(m, \sigma) = \text{yes}$
iff $\sigma^e = H(m) \pmod{N}$

Other popular signature schemes

- **Rabin** signatures (based on squaring mod $N=pq$)

Based on discrete log:

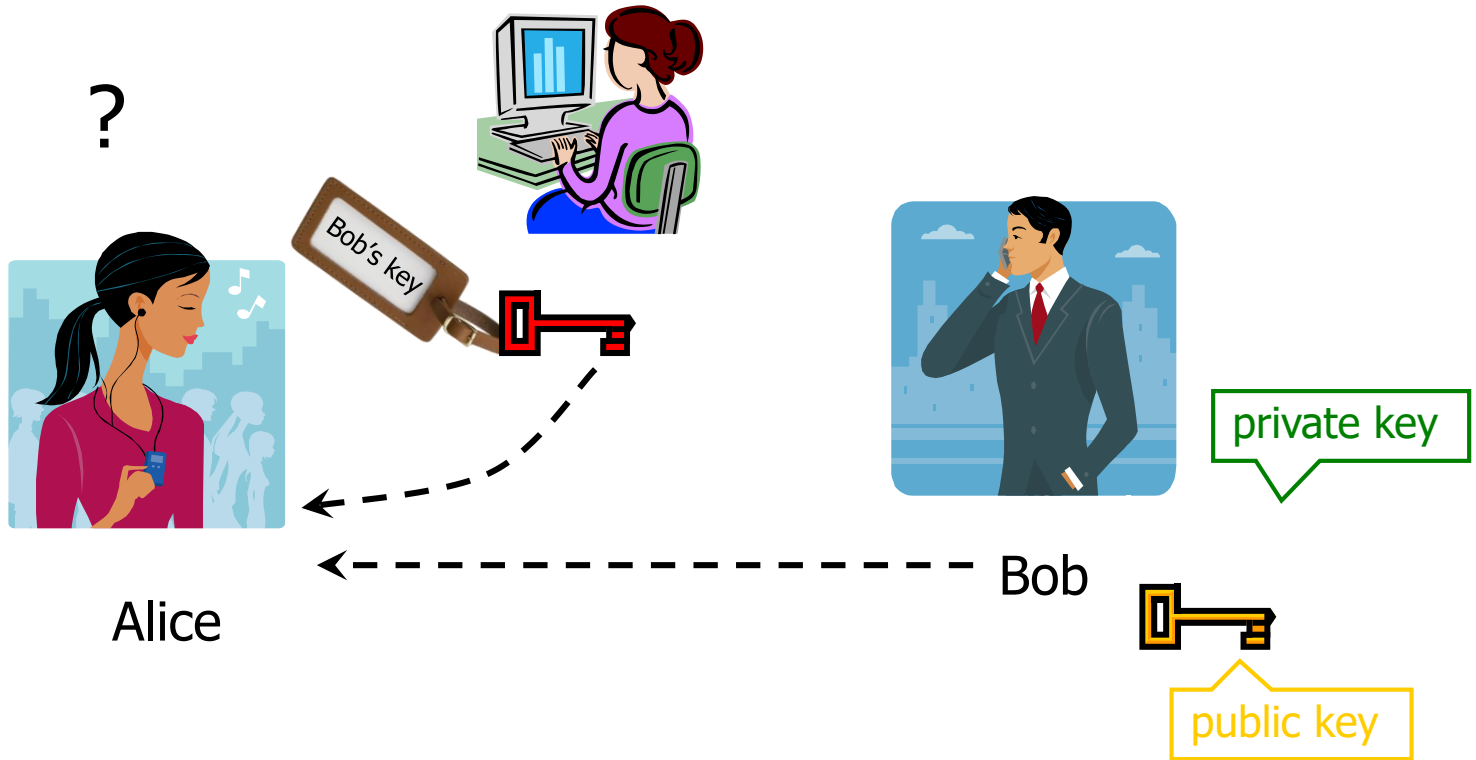
- **ElGamal** signatures
- Digital Signature Standard (**DSS**)
- **Schnorr** signatures

(also based on other groups – **elliptic curves**)

Secure communication on the Internet

- Generate public key, secret key pair
 - Using Miller-Rabin primality testing
- Distribute the Public Key
 - Using digital signatures and PKI
- Generate and share secret key
 - Using Public Key CCA secure encryption
- Communicate securely
 - Using symmetric-key authenticated encryption

Authenticity of Public Keys

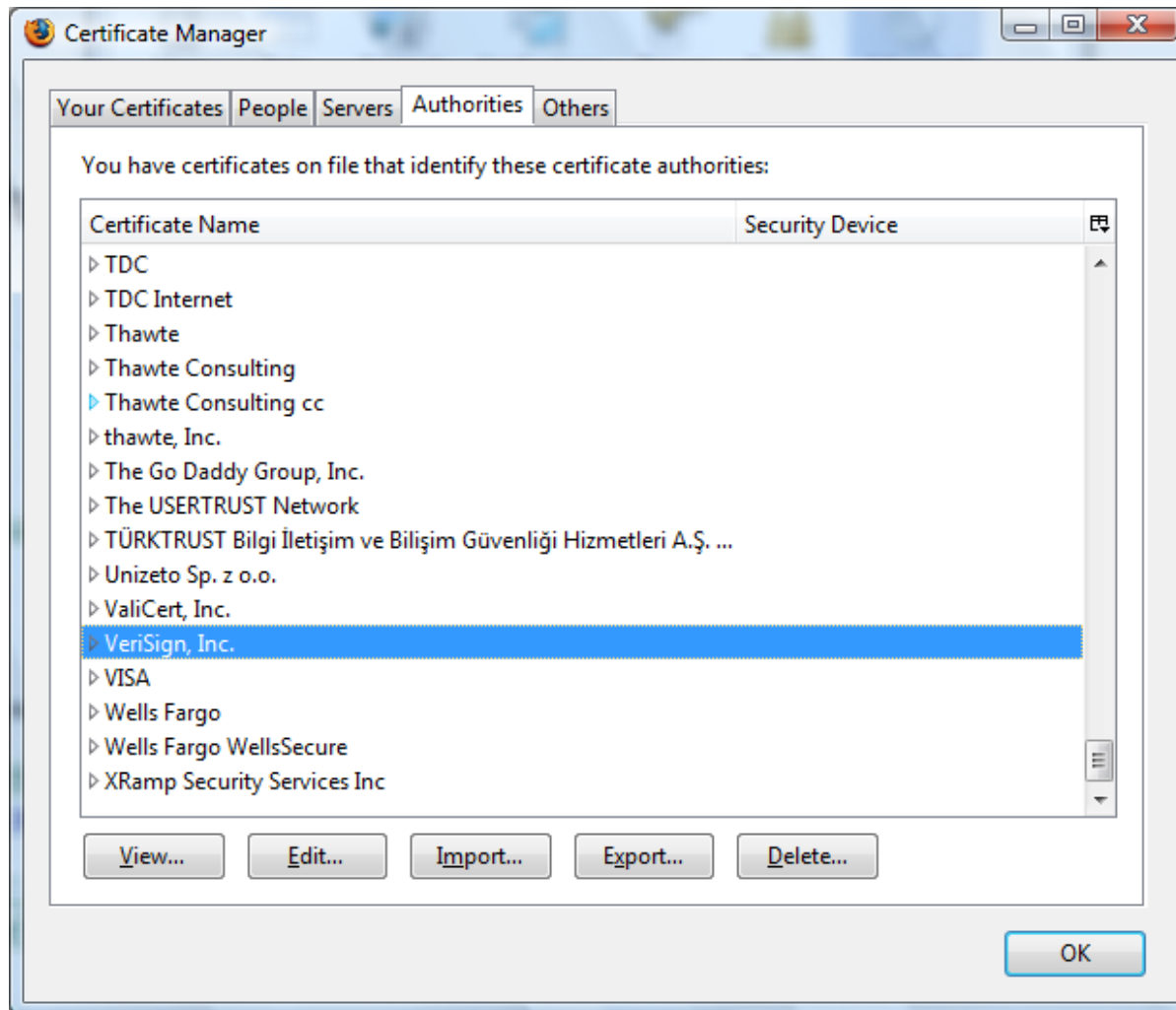


Problem: How does Alice know that the public key she received is really Bob's public key?

Distribution of Public Keys

- Public announcement or public directory
 - Risks: forgery and tampering
- **Public-key certificate**
 - Signed statement specifying the key and identity
 - $\text{Sig}_{\text{Alice}}(\text{“Bob”}, \text{PK}_{\text{Bob}})$
 - Could Bob sign his own certificate?
- Common approach: **certificate authority (CA)**
 - An agency responsible for certifying public keys
 - It generates certificates for domain names (example.com) on the web

Trusted Certificate Authorities



Acquiring a Certificate

1. Generate a new keypair

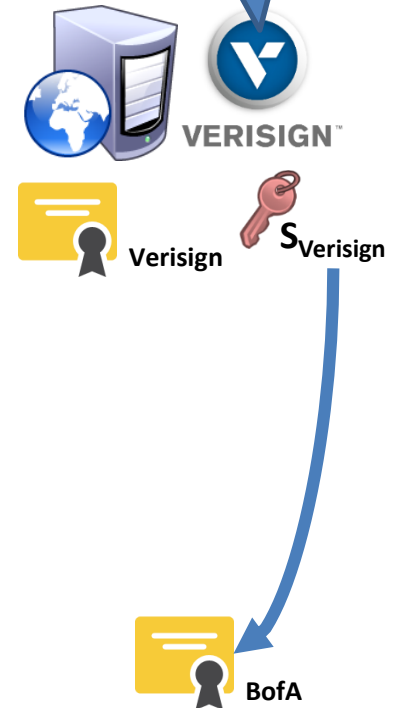
2. Generate a Certificate Signing Request (CSR).
Contains BofA's details,
the DNS name for the
cert, and P_{BofA}



3. Verify that the requestor
owns the domain in the CSR

- Serial number
- Owner's domain
- Owner's public key
- CA public key
- Expiration date

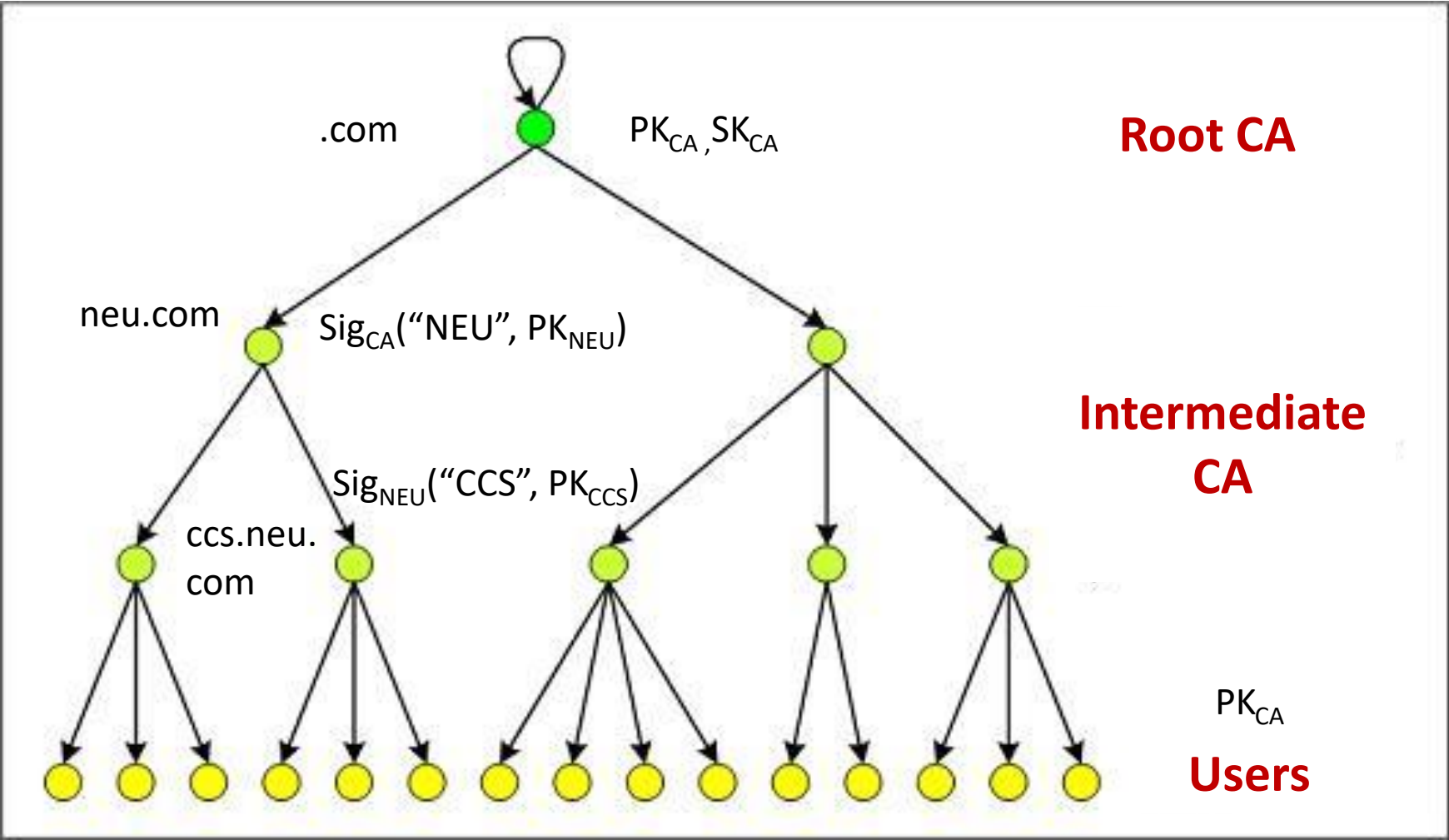
4. Generate a new certificate
using the data in the CSR,
sign it with the CA's private
key



CA Hierarchy or PKI

- Browsers, operating systems, etc. have trusted **root certificate authorities**
 - Firefox 3 includes certificates of 135 trusted root CAs
- A Root CA signs certificates for intermediate CAs, they sign certificates for lower-level CAs, etc.
 - Certificate **“chain of trust”**
 - $\text{Sig}_{\text{Verisign}}(\text{“NEU”}, \text{PK}_{\text{NEU}}), \text{Sig}_{\text{NEU}}(\text{“CCS”}, \text{PK}_{\text{CCS}})$
- CA is responsible for verifying the identities of certificate requestors, domain ownership

Certificate Hierarchy - PKI



Comodo

Independent Iranian hacker claims responsibility for Comodo hack

Posts claiming to be from an Iranian hacker responsible for the Comodo hack ...

by Peter Bright - Mar 28 2011, 11:15am EDT

65

```
1. Hello
2.
3. I'm writing this to the world, so you'll know more about me..
4.
5. At first I want to give some points, so you'll be sure I'm the hacker:
6.
7. I hacked Comodo from InstantSSL.it, their CEO's e-mail address mfpenco@mfpenco.com
8. Their Comodo username/password was: user: gtadmin password: [trimmed]
9. Their DB name was: globaltrust and instantsslcms
```

The alleged hacker's claim of responsibility on pastebin.com

The hack that resulted in [Comodo creating certificates](#) for popular e-mail providers including Google Gmail, Yahoo Mail, and Microsoft Hotmail has been claimed as the work of an independent Iranian patriot. A [post](#) made to data sharing site pastebin.com by a person going by the handle "comodohacker" claimed responsibility for the hack and described details of the attack. A second [post](#) provided source code apparently reverse-engineered as one of the parts of the attack.

What if CA secret key is compromised?

Recover from secret key compromise

- Revocation is very important
- Many valid reasons to revoke a certificate
 - Private key corresponding to the certified public key has been compromised
 - User stopped paying his certification fee to the CA and the CA no longer wishes to certify him
 - CA's certificate has been compromised!
- Methods
 - Certificate expiration
 - Certificate revocation
 - Certificate Revocation Lists (CRL)
 - Online Certificate Status Protocol (OCSP)

Key insights

- Digital signature schemes
 - Analogs of MACs in public-key setting
 - Public verifiability
 - Transferability
 - Non-repudiation
- Constructions
 - Hash-and-sign: Full-Domain Hash RSA
- PKI infrastructure
 - Distribute public keys
 - Hierarchical CA model
 - Single CA compromise can result in breaches
 - Revocation has a number of issues in practice

Acknowledgement

Some of the slides and slide contents are taken from

<http://www.crypto.edu.pl/Dziembowski/teaching>

and fall under the following:

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We have also used slides from Prof. Dan Boneh online cryptography course at Stanford University:

<http://crypto.stanford.edu/~dabo/courses/OnlineCrypto/>