MIT 6.875 & Berkeley CS276

Foundations of Cryptography Lecture 10

Today: Constructions of Public-Key Encryption

1: Trapdoor Permutations (RSA) *composite N/factoring*

2: Quadratic Residuosity/Goldwasser-Micali composite N/factoring

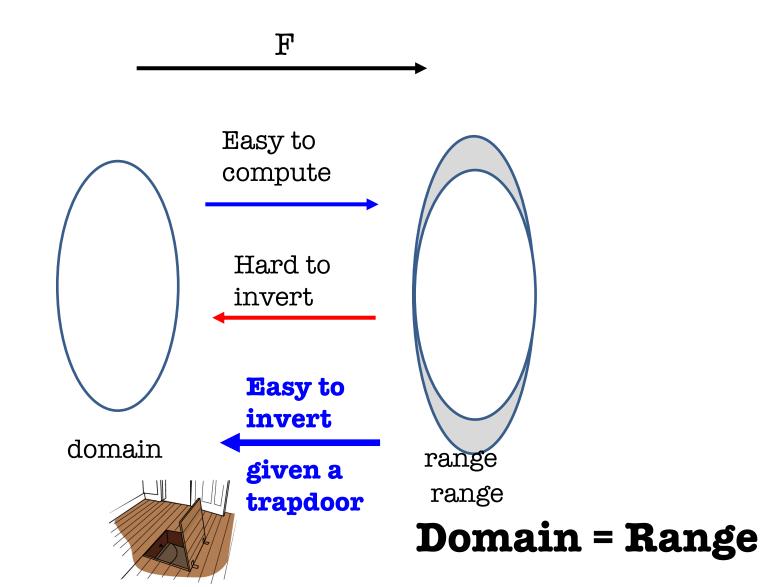
3: Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal prime

prime p/discrete log

4: Learning with Errors/Regev

small numbers, large dimensions

Trāpatodo Orenezaya Pelirmutations



Review: Number Theory

Let's review some number theory from L7-8.

Let N = pq be a product of two large primes.

<u>Fact</u>: $Z_N^* = \{a \in Z_N : gcd(a, N) = 1\}$ is a group.

- group operation is multiplication mod N.
- inverses exist and are easy to compute (how so?)
- the order of the group is $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$

<u>Lecture 8</u>: The map $F(x) = x^2 \mod N$ is a 4-to-1 trapdoor function, as hard to invert as factoring N.

The RSA Trapdoor Permutation

<u>Today</u>: Let *e* be an integer with $gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$. Then, the map $F_{N,e}(x) = x^e \mod N$ is a trapdoor permutation.

<u>Key Fact</u>: Given d such that $ed = 1 \mod \phi(N)$, it is easy to compute x given x^e .

Proof: $(x^e)^d$

This gives us the RSA trapdoor permutation collection.

 $\{F_{N,e}: \operatorname{gcd}(e, N) = 1\}$ Trapdoor for inversion: $d = e^{-1} \operatorname{mod} \phi(N)$.

The RSA Trapdoor Permutation

<u>Today</u>: Let *e* be an integer with $gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$. Then, the map $F_{N,e}(x) = x^e \mod N$ is a trapdoor permutation.

Hardness of inversion without trapdoor = RSA assumption

given N, e (as above) and $x^e \mod N$, hard to compute x.

We know that if factoring is easy, RSA is broken (and that's the only *known* way to break RSA)

Major Open Problem: Are factoring and RSA equivalent?

The RSA Trapdoor Permutation

<u>Today</u>: Let *e* be an integer with $gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$. Then, the map $F_{N,e}(x) = x^e \mod N$ is a trapdoor permutation.

Hardcore bits (galore) for the RSA trapdoor one-way perm:

- The Goldreich-Levin bit $GL(r; r') = \langle r, r' \rangle \mod 2$
- The least significant bit LSB(r)
- The "most significant bit" $HALF_N(r) = 1$ iff r < N/2
- In fact, any single bit of r is hardcore.

RSA Encryption

• $Gen(1^n)$: Let N = pq and (e, d) be such that $ed = 1 \mod \phi(N)$.

Let pk = (N, e) and let sk = d.

- Enc(pk, b) where b is a bit: Generate random $r \in Z_N^*$ and output $r^e \mod N$ and $LSB(r) \oplus m$.
- *Dec*(*sk*, *c*): Recover *r* via RSA inversion.

<u>IND-secure under the RSA assumption</u>: given N, e (as above) and $r^e \mod N$, hard to compute r.

Today: Constructions of Public-Key Encryption

1: Trapdoor Permutations (RSA)

2: Quadratic Residuosity/Goldwasser-Micali

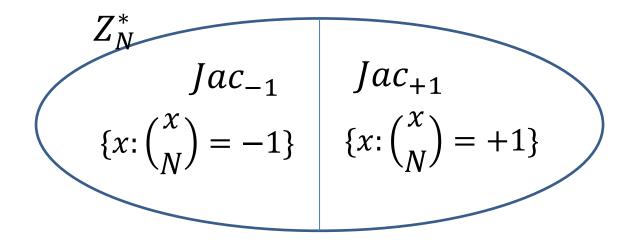
3: Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal

4: Learning with Errors/Regev



Let's review some *more* number theory from L7-8.

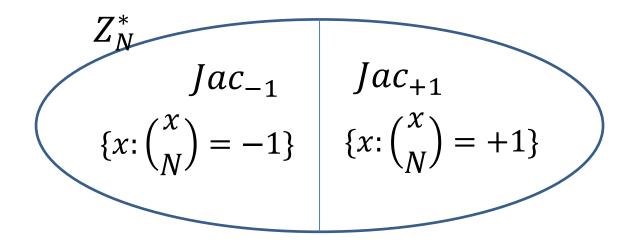
Let N = pq be a product of two large primes.



Jacobi symbol $\binom{x}{N} = \binom{x}{p} \binom{x}{q}$ is +1 if x is a square mod both p and q or a non-square mod both p and q.

Let's review some *more* number theory from L7-8.

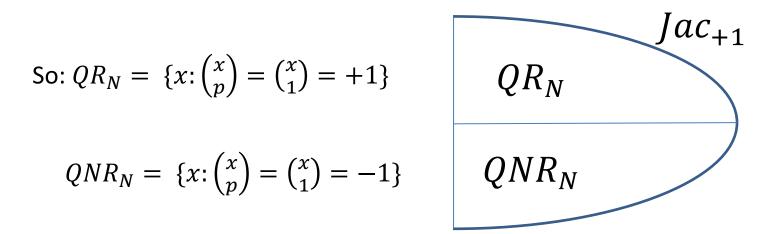
Let N = pq be a product of two large primes.



Surprising fact: Jacobi symbol $\binom{x}{N} = \binom{x}{p} \binom{x}{q}$ is computable in poly time without knowing p and q.

Let's review some more number theory from L7-8.

Let N = pq be a product of two large primes.



 QR_N is the set of squares mod N and QNR_N is the set of non-squares mod N with Jacobi symbol +1.

Let's review some *more* number theory from L7-8.

Let N = pq be a product of two large primes.

Quadratic Residuosity Assumption (QRA)

Let N = pq be a product of two large primes. No PPT algorithm can distinguish between a random element of QR_N from a random element of QNR_N given only N.

Goldwasser-Micali (GM) Encryption

Gen (1^n) : Generate random *n*-bit primes *p* and *q* and let N = pq. Let $y \in QNR_N$ be some quadratic nonresidue with Jacobi symbol +1.

Let pk = (N, y) and let sk = (p, q).

Enc(pk, b) where b is a bit: Generate random $r \in Z_N^*$ and output $r^2 \mod N$ if b = 0 and $r^2y \mod N$ if b = 1.

Dec(sk, c): Check if $c \in Z_N^*$ is a quadratic residue using p and q. If yes, output 0 else 1.

Goldwasser-Micali (GM) Encryption

Enc(pk, b) where b is a bit: Generate random $r \in Z_N^*$ and output $r^2 \mod N$ if b = 0 and $r^2y \mod N$ if b = 1.

IND-security follows directly from the quadratic residuosity assumption.

GM is a Homomorphic Encryption

Given a GM-ciphertext of b and a GM-ciphertext of b', I can compute a GM-ciphertext of b + b' mod 2. without knowing anything about b or b'!

Enc(*pk*, *b*) where *b* is a bit: Generate random $r \in Z_N^*$ and output $r^2 y^b \mod N$.

Claim: $Enc(pk, b) \cdot Enc(pk, b')$ is an encryption of $b \oplus b' = b + b' \mod 2$.

Today: Constructions of Public-Key Encryption

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Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

<u>Commutativity in the exponent</u>: $(g^x)^y = (g^y)^x$

(where g is an element of some group)

So, you can compute g^{xy} given either g^x and y, or g^y and x.

<u>Diffie-Hellman Assumption (DHA)</u>: Hard to compute g^{xy} given only g, g^x and g^y

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

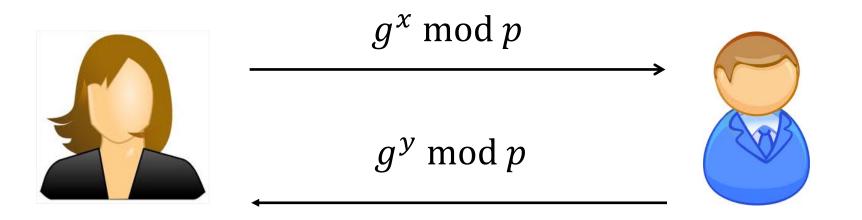
<u>Diffie-Hellman Assumption (DHA)</u>: Hard to compute it given only g, g^x and g^y

We know that if discrete log is easy, DHA is false.

Major Open Problem: Are discrete log and DHA equivalent?

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

p,g: Generator of our group Z_p^*



Pick a random number $x \in Z_{p-1}$

Shared key K = $g^{xy} \mod p$ = $(g^y)^x \mod p$ Pick a random number $y \in Z_{p-1}$

Shared key K = $g^{xy} \mod p$ = $(g^x)^y \mod p$

Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal Encryption

• $Gen(1^n)$: Generate an *n*-bit prime *p* and a generator g of Z_p^* . Choose a random number $x \in Z_{p-1}$

Let $pk = (p, g, g^x)$ and let sk = x.

- Enc(pk, m) where $m \in Z_p^*$: Generate random $y \in Z_{p-1}$ and output $(g^y, g^{xy} \cdot m)$
- Dec(sk = x, c): Compute g^{xy} using g^y and x and divide the second component to retrieve m.

Is this Secure?

The Problem

Claim: Given p, g, $g^x \mod p$ and $g^y \mod p$, adversary can **determine one** the form at is no applied to p.

Corollary: Therefore, additionally given $g^{xy} \cdot m \mod p$, the adversary can determine whether m is a square mod p, violating "IND-security".

The Problem

Claim: Given p, g, $g^x \mod p$ and $g^y \mod p$, adversary can determine if $g^{xy} \mod p$ is a square mod p.

 $g^{xy} \mod p$ is a square $\Leftrightarrow xy \pmod{p-1}$ is even

$$\Leftrightarrow xy$$
 is even

$$\Leftrightarrow x \text{ is even or } y \text{ is even}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x \pmod{p-1} \text{ is even or } y \pmod{p-1} \text{ is even}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow g^x \mod p \text{ or } g^y \mod p \text{ is a square}$$

This can be checked in poly time!

Diffie-Hellman Encryption

Claim: Given p, g, $g^x \mod p$ and $g^y \mod p$, adversary can determine if $g^{xy} \mod p$ is a square mod p.

More generally, dangerous to work with groups that have non-trivial subgroups (in our case, the subgroup of all squares mod p)

Lesson: Best to work over a group of prime order. Such groups have no subgroups.

An Example: Let p = 2q + 1 where q is a prime itself. Then, the group of squares mod p has order $\frac{(p-1)}{2} = q$.

Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal Encryption

• $Gen(1^n)$: Generate an *n*-bit "safe" prime p = 2q + 1and a generator g of Z_p^* and let $h = g^2 \mod p$ be a generator of QR_p . Choose a random number $x \in Z_q$.

Let
$$pk = (p, h, h^x)$$
 and let $sk = x$.

- Enc(pk,m) where $m \in QR_p$: Generate random $y \in Z_q$ and output $(g^y, g^{xy} \cdot m)$
- Dec(sk = x, c): Compute g^{xy} using g^y and x and divide the second component to retrieve m.

Decisional Diffie-Hellman Assumption

Decisional Diffie-Hellman Assumption (DDHA):

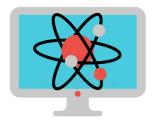
Hard to distinguish between g^{xy} and a uniformly random group element, given g, g^x and g^y

That is, the following two distributions are computationally indistinguishable:

 $(g, g^x, g^y, g^{xy}) \approx (g, g^x, g^y, u)$

DH/El Gamal is IND-secure under the DDH assumption.

Today: Constructions of Public-Key En



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2: Quadratic Residuosity/Goldwasser-Micali

3: Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal

4: Learning with Errors/Regev

(post-quantum secure, as far as we know)

Sol Sindy in git in time Equations

$$(s_1|s_2)\begin{bmatrix}5 & 1 & 3\\ 6 & 2 & 1\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}11 & 3 & 9\end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\mathsf{Easy!}} \operatorname{Find}(s_1|s_2)$$

How about:

$$(s_{1}|s_{2})\begin{bmatrix}5 & 1 & 3\\ 6 & 2 & 1\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix}e_{1} & e_{2} & e_{3}\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}11 & 3 & 9\end{bmatrix}$$

$$(e_{1},e_{2},e_{3}) \text{ are "small" numbers}$$

$$Very hard!$$
Find \vec{s}
in large dimensions

Learning with Errors (LWE)

[Regev05, following BFKL93, Ale03]

very hard!

Find s



 $(\mathbf{A} \in Z_q^{nXm}$ $\mathbf{s} \in Z_q^n$ random "small" secret vector $\mathbf{e} \in Z_q^n$: random "small" error vector)

Decisional LWE:

"Decisional LWE is as hard as LWE".

Basic (Secret-key) Encryption

n = security parameter, q = "small" prime

- Secret key sk = Uniformly random vector $\mathbf{s} \in Z_q^n$
- Encryption Enc_s(m): // m∈ {0,1}

– Sample uniformly random $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, "short" noise $\mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{Z}$

- The ciphertext $c = (a, b = \langle a, s \rangle + e + m$

Decryption Dec_{sk}(c): Output

_:(b − ⟨**a, s**⟩ mod q)

// correctness as long as |e| < q/4

Basic (Secret-key) Encryption

This is an incredibly cool scheme. In particular, additively homomorphic.

 $c = (a, b = \langle a, s \rangle + e + m \lfloor q/2 \rfloor) + e$

 $c' = (a', b' = \langle a', s \rangle + e' + m' \lfloor q/2 \rfloor)$

 $c + c' = (a+a', b+b' = \langle a+a', s \rangle + (e+e') + (m+m') \lfloor q/2 \rfloor)$

In words: c + c' is an encryption of m+m' (mod 2)

Public-key Encryption

Here is a crazy idea. Public key has an encryption of 0 (call it c_0) and an encryption of 1 (call it c_1). If you want to encrypt 0, output c_0 and if you want to encrypt 1, output c_1 .

Well, turns out to be a crazy *bad* idea.

If only we could produce *fresh* encryptions of 0 or 1 given just the pk...

Public-key Encryption

Here is another crazy idea. Public key has *many* encryptions of 0 and an encryption of 1 (call it c_1).

If you want to encrypt 0, output a random linear combination of the 0-encryptions.

If you want to encrypt 1, output a random linear combination of the 0-encryptions plus c_1 .

This one turns out to be a crazy **good** idea.

Public-key Encryption

- Secret key sk = Uniformly random vector $\mathbf{s} \in Z_q^n$
- Public key pk: for *i* from 1 to k = poly(n)

$$\left(\boldsymbol{c_0} = (\boldsymbol{a_0}, \langle \boldsymbol{a_0}, \boldsymbol{s} \rangle + \boldsymbol{e_0} + \left\lfloor \frac{q}{2} \right\rfloor\right), \boldsymbol{c_i} = (\boldsymbol{a_i}, \langle \boldsymbol{a_i}, \boldsymbol{s} \rangle + \boldsymbol{e_i})\right)$$

• Encrypting a bit m: pick k random bits r_1, \ldots, r_k

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} r_i \boldsymbol{c_i} + \boldsymbol{m} \cdot \boldsymbol{c_0}$$

Correctness: additive homomorphism

Security: decisional LWE + "Leftover Hash Lemma"

We saw: Constructions of Public-Key Encryption

1: Trapdoor Permutations (RSA)

- 2: Quadratic Residuosity/Goldwasser-Micali
- **3**: Diffie-Hellman/El Gamal
- 4: Learning with Errors/Regev

Practical Considerations

I want to encrypt to Bob. How do I know his public key?

Public-key Infrastructure: a directory of identities together with their public keys.

Needs to be "authenticated":

otherwise Eve could replace Bob's pk with her own.

Practical Considerations

Public-key encryption is orders of magnitude slower than secret-key encryption.

- 1. We just showed how to encrypt bit-by-bit! Superduper inefficient.
- 2. Exponentiation takes $O(n^2)$ time as opposed to typically linear time for secret key encryption (AES).
- 3. The *n* itself is large for PKE (RSA: $n \ge 2048$) compared to SKE (AES: n = 128).

Can solve problem 1 and minimize problems 2&3 using **hybrid encryption**.

Hybrid Encryption

To encrypt a long message m (think 1 GB):

<u>Pick a random key K (think 128 bits) for a secret-</u> key encryption

Encrypt K with the PKE: *PKE*. *Enc*(*pk*, *K*)

Encrypt m with the SKE: SKE. Enc(K, m)

To decrypt: recover K using sk. Then using K, recover m

Next Lecture: Digital Signatures