# Intro to crypto 

PQC Spring School 2024
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## Brief history of communicating secrets



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## Brief history of communicating secrets



Scytale


Bodymod steganography
(Histiaeus, acc. to Herodotus)


Caesar cipher

## Problem:

Techniques will never remain secret.


## Brief history of communicating secrets



## Brief history of communicating secrets

,Caesar with codeword':

Codeword: CRYPTO



## Brief history of communicating secrets



## Brief history of communicating secrets

| ,Caesar with codeword': |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Codeword: CRYPTO | A | A -> C | C |
|  | T | A $\rightarrow$ R | K |
|  | T | $A \rightarrow Y$ | R |
|  | A | A $\rightarrow$ P | P |
|  | C | A $\rightarrow$ T | V |
|  | K | A $\rightarrow$ O | Y |



## Brief history of communicating secrets

## Beware hubris.

You don't find attacks on how you communicate?

Bodymod st
(Histi acc. to H

## Doesn't mean no one else does!

Scytale

caesal cipitel


## Did you use any cryptography today?



Amazon uses https, https invokes the TLS protocol
TLS uses cryptography
TLS is actually quite ubiquitous: shopping, banking, Netflix, gmail, Facebook (yes, I'm old), ...

## Did you use any cryptography today?



Secure instant messaging:
How many apps do you use?

## What do we want from cryptography?



## Privacy:

Keeping secrets secret.


Integrity + authenticity:
Ensure that message really came from declared sender + arrived unaltered

## Secret-key encryption



Encrypt takes plaintext and key, and produces ciphertext

Decrypt takes ciphertext and key, and produces plaintext

Goal \#1: Confidentiality despite espionage (prerequisite: adversary does not know key)

## One-time pad

Key $K$ is picked uniformly random from $\ell$-bit strings: $K \leftarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}$
Plain- and ciphertexts are also $\ell$-bit strings: $m, c \in\{0,1\}^{\ell}$
Encrypt $_{K}(m)=K \oplus m$ : add $K$ and $m$, modulo 2 in each position $\bmod 2=$ divide by 2 , take remainder
e.g., $01 \oplus 11=(0+1 \bmod 2)(1+1 \bmod 2)=10$
$\operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}(c)=K \oplus c$
This works: $\operatorname{Decrypt}_{K}\left(\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(m)\right)=K \oplus \operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(m)=K \oplus K \oplus m=m$

## Perfect security

Formally: (KeyGen, Encrypt, Decrypt) perfectly secure iff
 for all plaintexts $m_{1}, m_{2}$ and all ciphertexts $c$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Encrypt }_{K}\left(m_{1}\right)=c\right]=\operatorname{Pr}\left[\text { Encrypt }_{K}\left(m_{2}\right)=c\right]
$$

Probability taken over the choice of key $K$

Important fact (Shannon): only possible if there are as many keys as there are potential messages

## One-time pad is perfectly secure

One-time pad: $\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(m)=K \bigoplus m, K$ chosen randomly
Suppose adversary

- gets $c=01$
- knows: $m$ is either $m_{1}=11$ or $m_{2}=01$
- but doesn't know $K$

Can it tell which message $m$ was?
No: could be $m_{1}=11$ (if $K=10$ ) or $m_{2}=01$ (if $K=00$ )


## One-time pad is perfectly secure... if used once

One-time pad: $\operatorname{Encrypt}_{K}(m)=K \oplus m, K$ chosen randomly
Suppose

- adversary sees first encryption: $c_{1}=01$
- but now also $c_{2}=c_{1}=01$
$\rightarrow$ Adversary learns that same message was sent twice


## Computational security

We want to encrypt

- arbitrary amounts of data
- with a single, short key
$\rightarrow$ perfectly secure symmetric-key encryption infeasible in practice
Computational security ('IND-CPA') as relaxation of security goal:
Telling Encrypt $E_{K}\left(m_{1}\right)$ from Encrypt ${ }_{K}\left(m_{2}\right)$ should be
- computationally infeasible (INDistinguishability),
- even if you chose $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ yourself (Chosen Plaintext Attack).


## Permutations

A permutation is a mapping $\Pi: S \rightarrow S$ from some set $S$ to itself that is one-to-one.

In other words: $\Pi$ has an inverse $\Pi^{-1}: S \rightarrow S$.

Example: $\mathrm{S}=\{A, B, C\}$

A permutation and its inverse:

| $x$ | A | B | C |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\pi(x)$ | C | A | B |


| $y$ | A | B | C |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\pi^{-1}(x)$ | B | C | A |

Not a permutation:

| $x$ | A | B | C |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\pi(x)$ | C | B | B |

## Block ciphers are families of permutations

Block ciphers $=$ two-input functions

$$
\text { E: Keys } \times\{0,1\}^{\ell} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell}
$$

so such each key $K$ gives us a permutation

$$
\begin{aligned}
E_{K}:\{0,1\}^{\ell} & \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{\ell} \\
x & \mapsto E(K, x)
\end{aligned}
$$

(so for each key $K, E_{K}$ has an inverse $E_{K}^{-1}$ )
(For practice: all functions $E_{K}, E_{K}^{-1}$ should be efficiently computable)

## Using block ciphers to encrypt



Encrypting $m=m_{1} \cdots m_{\ell}$ : $c=\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k}}\left(m_{1}\right) \cdots \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k}}\left(m_{\ell}\right)$


Decrypting $c=c_{1} \cdots c_{\ell}$ : $m=\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k}}^{-1}\left(c_{1}\right) \cdots \mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k}}^{-1}\left(c_{\ell}\right)$

Security requirement:
$c$ should leak neither $m$ nor $k$ !

## Data Encryption Standard (DES)

1972: NBS (now NIST) aims to standardise a block cipher

1974: IBM designs Lucifer, which evolves into DES

Widely adopted (e.g., used in ATMs)

High-level design:

- Feistel network, made of successive rounds
- Each round = simple operation, using a bit of the secret key


## Data Encryption Standard (DES): Feistel round


$\longleftarrow$ Split message into left half $\left(L_{0}\right)$ and right half $\left(R_{0}\right)$
$\longleftarrow$
Apply some nonlinear (key-dependent) function $F$ to $R_{0}$ to get OTP key for $L_{0}$

Swap sides

## Data Encryption Standard (DES): Feistel round



Split message into left half ( $L_{0}$ ) and right half ( $R_{0}$ )
Apply some nonlinear (key-dependent) function $F$ to $R_{0}$ to get OTP key for $L_{0}$

Swap sides

We can invert easily $\rightarrow$ this is a permutation!

## Data Encryption Standard (DES): round chaining

One round looks simple enough
$\rightarrow$ in practice DES chains as many as 16 rounds


## Block cipher evolution

DES key length: 56 bits $\rightarrow$ brute-force vulnerability:

- DES cracker (1998, Electronic Frontier Foundation, US\$ 250,000)
- COPACOBANA (2006, U Bochum + Kiel, US\$ 10,000)

If $D E S$ is still used, then as Triple-DES, using three keys $k_{1}, k_{2}$ and $k_{3}$ :
$c=\operatorname{Encrypt}_{k_{3}}\left(\operatorname{Decrypt}_{k_{2}}\left(\operatorname{Encryp}_{k_{1}}(m)\right)\right)$
AES: new standard, established in 2001

- chosen during 'competition' established by National Institute for Standardisation (NIST)
- not Feistel-based: based on Rijndael cipher, designed by Daemen and Rijmen


## Modes of operation

So far: block cipher encrypt $\ell$ bits of message
What if messages are longer than $\ell$ bits?
Just split + encrypt block-wise? ('Electronic codebook')


Image credit: T. Lange + J. Jean

## Modes of operation



So far: block cipher encrypt $\ell$ bits of message
What if messages are longer than $\ell$ bits?
Just split + encrypt block-wise? ('Electronic codebook')



ECB penguin by en:User:Lunkwill

## Secret-key encryption: wrap-up

Perfect secrecy is expensive (large keys)
One-time pad only is perfectly secure if we switch the key each time
In practice, we use a

- block cipher to encrypt blocks
- secure mode of operation (not ECB!) to encrypt messages longer than a single block

So far: discussed privacy, but not authenticity and/or integrity

Does secret-key encryption provide integrity?


## Does secret-key encryption provide integrity?



Mr. Krabs knows his block ciphers $\rightarrow$ tweaks ciphertext so it decrypts to 'pay 99000' instead of 'pay 20'.

## Hash functions

Function generating short handle ('fingerprint') for larger pieces of data:

$$
\text { Hash: }\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}
$$

Quite ubiquitous in crypto:

- message authentication codes (in a few slides: HMAC), e.g. in TLS
- digital certificates for public-key infrastructures
- public-key encryption, digital signatures (in second half of talk)
- secure password storage


## Hash functions

Function generating short handle ('fingerprint') for larger pieces of data:

$$
\text { Hash: }\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}
$$

Security goals: e.g. we could want that the fingerprints

- are hard to compute without knowing the data
- change a lot even when the data is changed only a tiny bit (e.g., bit flip)
- uniquely identify the data (PGP fingerprints)
- do not give enough information to reconstruct the data


## Hash functions: security definitions

Function generating short handle ('fingerprint') for larger pieces of data:

$$
\text { Hash: }\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}
$$

- Preimage resistance:

Given output $y \in\{0,1\}^{n}$, it's hard to find $x \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ with Hash $(x)=y$ ('preimage').
$<$ typically many!

- Second preimage resistance:

Given random input $x \in\{0,1\}^{*}$, it's hard to find $x^{\prime} \neq x$ with Hash $(x)=\operatorname{Hash}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$.

- Collision resistance:

It's hard to find $x$ and $x^{\prime} \neq x$ with Hash $(x)=\operatorname{Hash}\left(x^{\prime}\right)$.

## Hash functions: SHA-2 ('Secure hash algorithm')

Designed by the National Security Agency (NSA), first published in 2001.
Built using the Merkle-Damgård construction (next slide), from a compression function.

## Main idea:

- easier to build fixed-size compression
- If you have secure compression function, MD gives you a hash function for free


## Compression in SHA-2:

Davies-Meyer construction, using specialized block cipher

Family of keyed functions

$$
\mathrm{C}:\{0,1\}^{k} \times\{0,1\}^{2 n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}
$$

with inputs of fixed size $2 n$ that get 'compressed' to half their size.


## Hash functions: Merkle-Damgård construction

Start with some initiation vector IV

$\operatorname{pad}(m)$ :

- Dissect full message $m$ into size- $n$ blocks $M_{1}, \cdots M_{t}$ (to fit into compression function $C$ )
- Use padding in the last block $M_{t}$ to fill it up to size $n$

Each step takes $n$ message bits as input, together with previous $n$-bit output $h_{i-1}$, and compresses these to $n$-bit block: $h_{i}=C\left(M_{i-1}, h_{i-1}\right)$.

## Hash functions: Merkle-Damgård construction

Start with some initiation vector IV

$\operatorname{pad}(m)$ :

- Dissect full message $m$ into size- $n$ blocks $M_{1}, \cdots M_{t}$ (to fit into compression function $C$ )
- Use padding in the last block $M_{t}$ to fill it up to size $n$


## Pros of this iterative design:

- Simplifies security reasoning: if compression function C is collision-resistant, then so is H .
- Incremental computation nice for small devices (stream data one block at a time)


## Hash functions evolution

## SHA-1 (predecessor of SHA-2):

- flaws known since 2005, attacks public since 2017 (https://shattered.io/), 2020 (https://shambles.github.io/)
- still used for fingerprints (e.g., git) $)^{2}$

SHA-2:

- currently deemed secure
- widely used in various security applications and protocols

SHA-3: Latest addition to SHA family

- established during NIST standardization effort for hash functions
- not based on Merkle-Damgård, but on 'sponges'
- currently deemed secure


## Hash functions good integrity checks?



Q: Does this ensure the integrity of $M^{\prime}$ ?

## Hash functions good integrity checks?



Q: Does this ensure the integrity of $M^{\prime}$ ?
No: Mr. Krabs can pick his own $c^{\prime}$ and compute $t a g^{\prime}$ for $c^{\prime} \rightarrow$ keyless integrity checks won't work!

# Message authentication codes 




MAC = 'checksum', taking key $k$ and message $M$ (plaintext or ciphertext) to produce authentication tag:

$$
\text { MAC: Keys } \times\{0,1\}^{m} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{t}
$$

$\rightarrow$ MAC can convince Paypal that $M$ really comes from Spongebob
Security goal = UnForgeability: Computing a valid MAC without knowing $k$ is hard.

- UF against Chosen Message Attacks (UF-CMA):
even when given the power to request $\operatorname{MAC}\left(k, M_{i}\right)$ on chosen messages $M_{i}$, computing a valid $\operatorname{MAC}\left(k, M^{\prime}\right)$ for a new a new $M^{\prime} \neq M_{i}$ is hard.


## Hash-based MACs

Proposal: Take hash function Hash: $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ and set

$$
\operatorname{MAC}_{k}(M)=\operatorname{Hash}(k, M)
$$

Q: Hard to produce a valid $\mathrm{MAC}_{k}\left(M^{\prime}\right)$ if we can request $\mathrm{MAC}_{k}\left(M_{i}\right)$ for any $M_{i}$ we like?

## Hash-based MACs

Proposal: Take hash function Hash: $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$ and set

$$
\operatorname{MAC}_{k}(M)=\operatorname{Hash}(k, M)
$$

Length extension attack :


Exploit 'chaining' structure of Hash: pick message $M=$ hello, request tag $=$ Hash ( $k$, hello).

- View hello in padded block structure + add something: $M^{\prime}=$ hell $|o X X X|$ dork
- Tag for helloXXXdork:
$\operatorname{Hash}(k$, helloXXXdork $)=\operatorname{Hash}(H a s h(k$, hello $)$, dork $)=$ Hash(tag,dork)
Without knowing $k$, we can forge a tag for the message helloXXXdork!


## Hash-based MACs: HMAC

Puts the key $k$

- at the end to prevent length-extension attacks (you'd need to know dork|k),
- but also at the beginning (to deal with collisions).

Mixes up $k$ via two different padding strings (ipad, opad), so that the MAC doesn't use the same key twice

$$
\operatorname{HMAC}_{k}(M)=\operatorname{Hash}(k \oplus \operatorname{opad}, \operatorname{Hash}(k \oplus \operatorname{ipad}, M))
$$



## Authenticated encryption



We looked at privacy and authenticity separately:

| Goal | Primitive | Security notion |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Data privacy | Secret-key encryption | IND-CPA: <br> Hard to tell Encrypt $_{K}\left(m_{1}\right)$ from Encrypt $_{K}\left(m_{2}\right)$ |
| Data authenticity <br> / integrity | Message authentication code | UF-CMA: <br> Hard to forge $M A C\left(k, M^{\prime}\right)$, even when seeing $\operatorname{MAC}\left(k, M_{1}\right)$, <br> $M A C\left(k, M_{2}\right), \cdots$ |

Q: How to achieve both goals at once?

## Three common combination approaches

- Encrypt-and-MAC
- used in SSH


Privacy?
Adversaries can detect resent messages because MAC is deterministic

## Three common combination approaches

- Encrypt-and-MAC
- used in SSH
- not secure per se (SSH uses modifications)


Integrity?
Not necessarily: may be able to tweak $C$ into $c^{\prime}$ in a way that its decryption is still the same. Then $t$ is still valid!

## Three common combination approaches

- Encrypt-and-MAC
- used in SSH
- not secure per se (SSH uses modifications)
- MAC-then-Encrypt
- used in TLS 1.2


## Privacy?

If encryption is IND-CPA secure,

- resent messages are unnoticeable (despite MAC)
- the MAC-then-encrypt construction is also IND-CPA secure



## Three common combination approaches

- Encrypt-and-MAC
- used in SSH
- not secure per se (SSH uses modifications)
- MAC-then-Encrypt
- used in TLS 1.2
- not secure per se, but can be if done right

Integrity?
Same problem as before!


## Three common combination approaches

- Encrypt-and-MAC
- used in SSH
- not secure per se (SSH uses modifications)
- MAC-then-Encrypt
- used in TLS 1.2
- not secure per se, but can be if done right
- Encrypt-then-MAC
- used in IPSec
- Privacy: IND-CPA if Encryption is IND-CPA
- Integrity: no computing right $t^{\prime}$ for $c^{\prime}$ without $k_{M A C}$



## Proof sketch: Encrypt-then-MAC is IND-CPA

Want to show: if Encrypt is IND-CPA secure, then so is Encrypt-then-MAC.
Encrypt-then-MAC $\left(k_{E N C}, k_{M A C}, m\right)=(c, t)$ with $c=\operatorname{Encrypt}\left(k_{E N C}, m\right)$ and $t=M A C\left(k_{M A C}, c\right)$
Tool: Turn attack on Encrypt-then-MAC into attack on Encrypt ('security reduction'):

- Show: Successful attack on Encrypt-then-MAC gives successful attack on Encrypt
- But Encrypt is secure. So no successful attack on Encrypt-then-MAC can exist!

IND-CPA attack on
Encrypt-then-MAC

Encrypt-then-MAC
functionality

$$
\begin{aligned}
& c=\text { encryption of } \\
& \text { either } m_{1} \text { or } m_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
t=M A C\left(k_{M A C}, c\right)
$$

## Proof sketch: Encrypt-then-MAC is IND-CPA

Want to show: if Encrypt is IND-CPA secure, then so is Encrypt-then-MAC.

$$
\text { Encrypt-then-MAC }\left(k_{E N C}, k_{M A C}, m\right)=(c, t) \text { with } c=\operatorname{Encrypt}\left(k_{E N C}, m\right) \text { and } t=M A C\left(k_{M A C}, c\right)
$$

Tool: Turn attack on Encrypt-then-MAC into attack on Encrypt ('security reduction'):

- Show: Successful attack on Encrypt-then-MAC gives successful attack on Encrypt
- But Encrypt is secure. So no successful attack on Encrypt-then-MAC can exist!

Encrypt functionality

$(c, t)$ belongs to $m_{1} / m_{2}$ !

How to share a secret key?


## Public-key encryption (PKE)



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## Public-key encryption (PKE)



## Public-key encryption (PKE)



Alice


## Public-key encryption (PKE)



## Security definitions



Key server




## Ciphertext indistinguishability games

Indistinguishability under chosen-plaintext attacks = public key version of symmetric-key IND-CPA:

| Left game | Right game |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adversary gets public key <br> Adversary picks two messages m1 and m 2 <br> Adversary gets encryption of: |  |
| $\mathrm{m} 1 \quad \mathrm{~m} 2$ |  |
| Adversary guesses which game it's playing |  |

## Question: Can we have IND-CPA security if encryption is deterministic*?

* = encrypting a message m always gives the same result


## Ciphertext indistinguishability games

Indistinguishability under chosen-plaintext attacks = public key version of symmetric-key IND-CPA:

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## Question: Can we have IND-CPA security if encryption is deterministic*?

No, but encryption could still be hard to invert.

* = encrypting a message m always gives the same result


## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## How could Alice encrypt ,sell'?

## RSA: computations with primes!

Schoolbook RSA = simplification of PKCS\#1, the PKE scheme used in TLS's predecessor.


## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& e=5, d=13 \\
& x=2 \\
& x^{e}=2^{5}=32
\end{aligned}
$$

$\left(2^{e}\right)^{d}=32^{13}$ (large, but has remainder 2!)
Also works for $x=3, x=4, x=5, \ldots$

## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## PKE example: Schoolbook RSA



## Security intuition: RSA = trapdoor permutation

Like on the previous slides, we take

- as modulus $N$ a prime product.
- $e, d$ s.th. dividing $\left(x^{e}\right)^{d}$ by N always has remainder $x$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{RSA}_{e}:\{1,2,3, \cdots, N-1\} & \rightarrow\{1,2,3, \cdots, N-1\} \\
x & \mapsto x^{e} \bmod N
\end{aligned}
$$

By choice of $e$ and $d, \mathrm{RSA}_{e}$ is a permutation
So-called trapdoor one-way permutation: Computing $x^{e}$ is easy, inverting is

- believed to be hard given only $N$ and $e$ (public key) $\leftarrow$ if we chose the parameters appropriately (!)
- easy given trapdoor $d$ (the secret key)
$\triangle$ RSA $_{e}$ may be hard to invert, but is deterministic $\rightarrow$ no IND-CPA security!
§ In practice, we need appropriate padding.


## Chosen-ciphertext attacks



## Chosen-ciphertext attacks



Alice


## Chosen-ciphertext attacks



Alice


## Chosen-ciphertext attacks

## Chosen Ciphertext Attacks Against Protocols

Based on the RSA Encryption Standard PKCS \#1

Daniel Bleichenbacher
Bell Laboratories
700 Mountain Ave.
Murray Hill, NJ 07974
E-mail: bleichen@research.bell-labs.com
[Bleichenbacher 98]


## Ciphertext indistinguishability games

IND-CCA security: Indistinguishability under chosen-ciphertext attacks.

## Like IND-CPA:

| Left game | Right game |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adversary gets public key <br> Adversary picks two messages m1 and m2 <br> Adversary gets encryption of: |  |
| m 1 | m 2 |
| Adversary guesses which game it's playing |  |

Difference to IND-CPA: Adversary can additionally request decryptions for any ciphertext is chooses...

Wait, can't this always be won?

## Ciphertext indistinguishability games

IND-CCA security: Indistinguishability under chosen-ciphertext attacks.

## Like IND-CPA:

| Left game | Right game |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adversary gets public key <br> Adversary picks two messages m 1 and m 2 <br> Adversary gets encryption of: |  |
| m 1 | m 2 |
| Adversary guesses which game it's playing |  |

Difference to IND-CPA: Adversary can additionally request decryptions for any ciphertext is chooses... except the provided encryption of $\mathrm{m} 1 / \mathrm{m} 2$

## Back to what we wanted

Goal: Find a public-key method to securely establish symmetric keys $K_{\text {sym }}$.
(Why not just use PKE to send encrypted messages? Efficiency.)
This is called a Key Encapsulation Mechanism (KEM).

Bob's public key


Alice


## Key Encapsulation Mechanisms (KEMs)

A KEM consists of 3 Algorithms:

1. KeyGen: Outputs a public/secret key pair ( $p k, s k$ )
2. Encapsulate $(p k)$ : Uses $p k$ to create $K_{\text {sym }}$ and a ciphertext $c$
3. Decapsulate( $s k, c$ ): Uses $s k$ to recreate $K_{\text {sym }}$ from $c$


## KEMs: Security definition

A ciphertext $c$ shouldn't leak substantial information about $K_{\text {sym }}$.


## Indistinguishability game for KEMs

IND-CPA-KEM security: Indistinguishability for KEMs.

| Left game | Right game |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adversary gets public key |  |
| Adversary gets ciphertext c computed via Encapsulate, together with |  |
| The $K_{\text {sym }}$ that accompanied c | A uniformly random $K_{\text {sym }}$ |
| Adversary guesses which game it's playing |  |

## KEMs in practice: NIST 'competition'

Shared approach: PKE from hardness assumption + Fujisaki-Okamoto 'recipe'
Fujisaki-Okamoto (FO) :

- 'generic' encryption-to-key-encapsulation recipe
- ${ }_{k} r_{r}{ }_{B}=$ moduleLWE encryption, plugged into FO recipe

Bob's public key


## Fujisaki-Okamoto KEMs: initial idea

Goal: Find a way to establish symmetric keys $K_{\text {sym }}$, securely.
You may use a public-key encryption scheme.


## Fujisaki-Okamoto KEMs: initial idea

Goal: Find a way to establish symmetric keys $K_{\text {sym }}$, se
You may use a public-key encryption scheme.

Bob's
public key

## Fujisaki-Okamoto KEMs: initial idea

Goal: Find a way to establish symmetric keys $K_{\text {sym }}$, securely.
You may use a public-key encryption scheme and a hash function.


## Fujisaki-Okamoto K

Goal: Find a way to establish syr
You may use a public-key encryp

Assume (!) Hash outputs are unpredictable + unrelated
$\rightarrow A$ has 0 chance distinguishing without computing Hash $(m)$ itself ... for which it needs to know $m$ ... meaning it inverted encryption!

## Q: Is this secure?



Bob's public key

## Security against chosen-ciphertext attacks

Goal: Find a way to establish symmetric keys $K_{\text {sym }}$ with chosen-ciphertext security.
$\rightarrow$ attacker allowed to request decapsulation for any ciphertext.

Only high-level: slightly alter how the KEM en-/decapsulates:
Altered decapsulation will

- detect malicious ciphertexts
- punish those by rejecting to return a meaningful key.
$\rightarrow$ hard for attacker to request useful decapsulations


It is still being researched today which altering strategy works best!

## Take-aways

PKEs give us privacy (without secret meetings), KEMs make this more efficient.
We have a 'cooking recipe' for turning PKE into a KEM (called Fujisaki-Okamoto).
We used a ,lego‘ approach very common in crypto:


Q: how can we guarantee data authenticity/integrity?

## Digital signatures - a bit like MACs:



## Digital signatures: security goals

Security goal = UnForgeability: Computing a valid signature without knowing secret key $\mathrm{s} k$ is hard.
(Attackers will know the public key, though.)

- UF against Chosen Message Attacks (UF-CMA): even given the power to request signatures on chosen messages $m_{i}$, a valid signature for a new message $m^{\prime} \neq m_{i}$ is hard to produce.



## Digital signatures - a bit like MACs, but not fully:



## Schoolbook RSA signatures

Remember RSA function: We take

- as modulus $N$ a prime product.
- $e, d$ s.th. dividing $\left(x^{e}\right)^{d}$ by N always has remainder $x \rightarrow \mathrm{RSA}_{e}$ is a permutation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{RSA}_{e}:\{1,2,3, \cdots, N-1\} & \rightarrow\{1,2,3, \cdots, N-1\} \\
x & \mapsto x^{e} \bmod N
\end{aligned}
$$

Like before, we set: public key $\square$ $=(N, e)$, secret key $=d$ :


## Schoolbook RSA signatures

Remember RSA function: We take

- as modulus $N$ a prime product.
- $e, d$ s.th. dividing $\left(x^{e}\right)^{d}$ by N always has remainder $x \rightarrow \mathrm{RSA}_{e}$ is a permutation:


Alice



## Q: Is this secure?

Can Mr. Krabs - only knowing the public key $N, e$, but not $d-$ sign a message such that Bob accepts the signature?)


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Key-only forgery: Pick arbitrary 'signature' $s$, set $m=s^{e} \bmod N$ $\rightarrow s$ is a valid signature for $m$ that will be accepted by Bob!
In practice, however, $m$ might look unconvincing to the recipient.


## Q: Is this secure?

Can Mr. Krabs - only knowing the public key $N, e$, but not $d-$ sign a message such that Bob accepts the signature?)

Targetted forgery via signature requests: Choose target message $m^{*}$.
We'll exploit the multiplicative property of the RSA function ('verification preserves multiplication'):

$$
\left(s_{1} \cdot s_{2}\right)^{e}=s_{1}^{e} \cdot s_{2}^{e} \bmod N
$$

Attack:

- Pick arbitrary message $m_{1}$, and $m_{1}^{-1}$ such that $m_{1} m_{1}^{-1} \bmod N=1$.
- Request signature $s_{1}$ for $m_{1}$ : you get $s_{1}=m_{1}^{d}$
and signature $s_{2}$ for $m_{2}=m_{1}^{-1} \cdot m^{*}$ : you get $s_{2}=m_{2}^{d}$
Sign $m^{*}$ with $s^{*}=s_{1} \cdot s_{2} \rightarrow$ Bob accepts since $\left(s^{*}\right)^{e}=m^{*} \bmod N$ :

$$
\left(s^{*}\right)^{e}=s_{1}^{e} \cdot s_{2}^{e}=m_{1} \cdot m_{2}=m_{1} \cdot m_{1}^{-1} \cdot m^{*}=m^{*} \bmod N
$$

## Q: Can we tweak this so it becomes secure?

Idea: Pick hash function Hash: $\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{1,2,3, \cdots, N-1\}$, sign messages $m \in\{0,1\}^{*}$ by applying RSA signature approach to $\operatorname{Hash}(m)$.

Advantage 1: We can now sign arbitrary-length messages.
Advantage 2: Targetted attack a lot harder: need to find $m, m_{1}, m_{2}$ such that
$\operatorname{Hash}(m)=\operatorname{Hash}\left(m_{1}\right) \cdot \operatorname{Hash}\left(m_{2}\right) \bmod N$


## Abstraction of tweak : full domain hash (FDH)

Take trapdoor one-way permutation $\Pi$ (like the RSA function): computing

- $\Pi(p k, x)$ is easy (e.g., $x^{e}$ )
- $\Pi^{-1}(s k, y)$ is (e.g., $\left.y^{d}\right)$
- hard when not knowing $s k$
- easy when knowing $s k$


Alice's public key

## Approach based on identification schemes

Hey Alice, is this really you?

Alice's secret key


## Approach based on identification schemes



## Approach based on identification schemes



## Approach based on identification schemes



## Approach based on identification schemes



## Take-aways

We have a 'cooking recipe' for building signatures from a one-way trapdoor function We again used the 'lego‘ approach:


There are also other 'recipes' you will probably encounter during this week All known recipes require some hardness assumption (e.g., 'inverting $x^{e}$ is hard')

Q: how would we prove security against quantum attackers? (next talk)

## Post-quantum crypto

## RSA Problem that (hopefully) is hard even for quantum computers



## If time permits: random oracle model (ROM)

Heuristic: Replace hash function
Hash: $\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}$
with 'oracle box' for truly random

$$
f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{m}
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$$

Reduction B
Oracle for $f$


## Perks of the random oracle model

- Unpredictability of $f(x)$
- 'Tricking $A^{\prime}$ : Picking the ys smartly enough, $B$ can
a) trick $A$ into solving $B$ 's problem
b) feign secret knowledge it would - in principle - need for A's security game
$\qquad$



## Practice example: ROs as one-way functions

## Short DIY break:

Try to reason why it is hard for $A$ to win the one-way game if $n$ is large enough!

Oracle for $f:\{0,1\}^{n} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{n}$


## Practice example: ROs as one-way functions

Say $A$ makes $q$ many queries to $f$

- Per query $x \neq x^{*}: f$ returns $y^{*}$ with probability $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$
- A queries $f$ on $x^{*}$ with probability $\lesssim \frac{q}{2^{n}}$
- If no query yields $y^{*}: f\left(x^{\prime}\right)=y^{*}$ with probability $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$

$\operatorname{Pr}[A$ wins $] \lesssim \frac{q}{2^{n}}+\frac{q}{2^{n}}+\frac{1}{2^{n}}$



## This heuristic seems weird.

) No theoretical justification
Counterexamples: designs that are

- secure in the ROM, but
- insecure when instantiating RO with any hash function
© So far: good track record for 'natural' schemes
Helps identify design bugs


