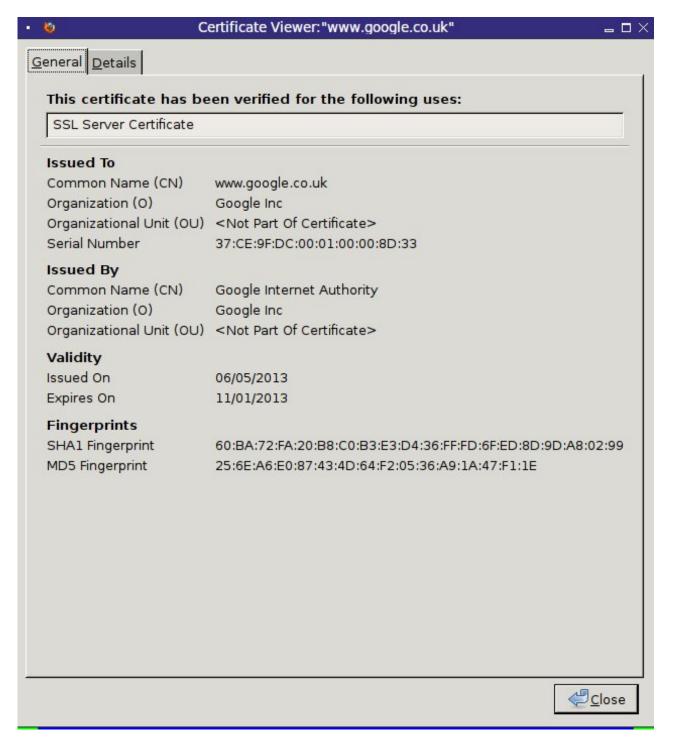
Public-key cryptography and the Discrete-Logarithm Problem

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Cryptography

Let's understand what our browsers do.



Schoolbook RSA

Pick primes p, q of same bitlength, at least 512 bits (2048 to feel secure).

Compute $N = p \cdot q$.

Compute $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$.

Pick e with $gcd\{e, \phi(N)\} = 1$.

Compute e with

 $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$.

Public key is (e, N),

secret key is d.

Some systems keep p and q, see exercises.

Encryption of message m < N:

Compute $c = m^e$ (mod N). Decryption of ciphertext c:

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Decryption of ciphertext c:

Compute

$$c^d \equiv (m^e)^d \equiv m^{k\phi(N)+1} \equiv m$$
modulo N .

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modulo N .

Signature on message m:

Uses cryptographic hash function

$$h: \{0, 1\}^* \to \mathbf{Z}/N$$

Compute

$$s = (h(m))^d \pmod{N}$$
.

Verify signature by comparing h(m) with s^e (mod N).

Problems with schoolbook RSA

Encryption is deterministic:

- attacker can test candidate message;
- repeated messages are recognized.

Small e is dangerous for small m (no effect of modular reduction).

More number-theoretic fun, see exercises.

Encryption is homomorphic: encryption of m_1m_2 is c_1c_2 (mod N).

Modern cryptography: allow attacker to use oracles for decryption or signatures. Can query anything except for target.

Use this to decrypt c:

Modern cryptography: allow attacker to use oracles for decryption or signatures. Can query anything except for target.

Use this to decrypt c:
Pick random m'.
Ask oracle to decrypt $c' = (m')^e c \pmod{N}$.
Get message by dividing my m'.

RSA-OAEP

Optimal asymmetric encryption padding, included in PKCS #1v2. Formats message (before RSA). Formatting unlikely to survive multiplication. If format is incorrect decryption will fail.

Let $n = \lfloor \log_2 N \rfloor$.

Algorithm uses parameters k_0 , k_1 , messages are in $\{0,1\}^{n-k_0-k_1}$.

Uses two hash functions G, H:

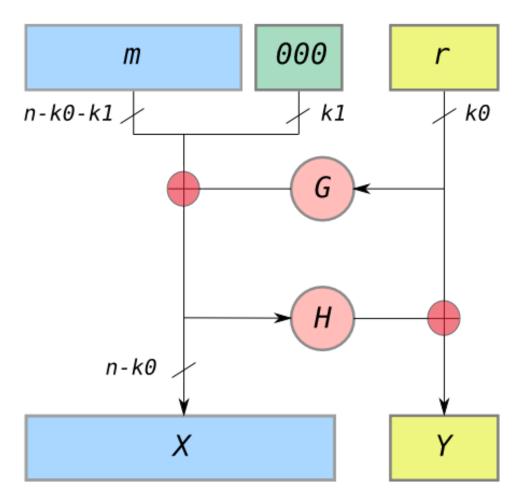
 $G: \{0,1\}^{k_0} \to \{0,1\}^{n-k_0}$

 $H: \{0,1\}^{n-k_0} \to \{0,1\}^{k_0}.$

- 1. Pad m with k_1 zeros.
- 2. Pick random $r \in \{0, 1\}^{k_0}$.
- 3. Compute

$$X = m00 \dots 0 \oplus G(r)$$
.

- 4. Compute $Y = r \oplus H(X)$.
- 5. Output *X*, *Y*.



Credit: Ozga at en.wikipedia

What does your browser do?

- 1. Check X.509 certificate: RSA signature verification.
- 2. OAEP format random message m;
- 3. RSA encrypt resulting message M = X, Y (interpreted as number mod N).
- 4. Send ciphertext to server.
- 5. Derive encryption and authentication keys from m.
- 6. Use these for the bulk encryption.
- Google uses RC4 for encryption; other common choice: AES.

Authenticated encryption

Authentication key computes tag on message so that any change makes tag invalid.

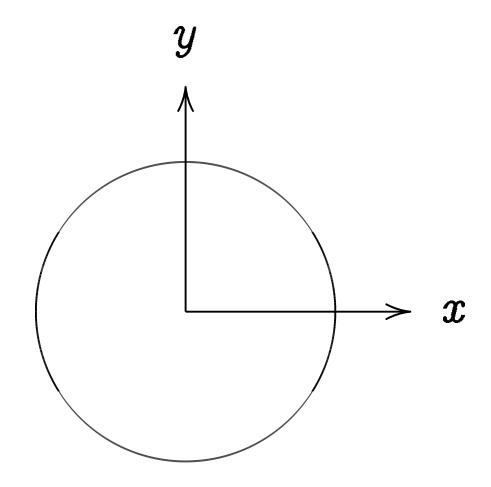
Cannot prove authenticity to third party.

Convinces owners of secret key that they are communicating with one another.

Typical examples:

- RC4-HMAC (keyed-hash message authentication code)
- AES-GCM (Galois Counter Mode)

The clock



This is the curve $x^2 + y^2 = 1$.

Warning:

This is *not* an elliptic curve. "Elliptic curve" \neq "ellipse."

Examples of points on this curve: (0, 1) = "12:00".

$$(0, 1) = "12:00"$$
.

$$(0, -1) = "6:00"$$
.

$$(0, 1) = "12:00".$$

$$(0, -1) = "6:00"$$
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$$(1,0) = "3:00"$$
.

$$(0, 1) = "12:00".$$

$$(0,-1) = "6:00"$$
.

$$(1,0) = "3:00".$$

$$(-1,0) = "9:00"$$
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$$(0,-1) = "6:00"$$
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$$(1,0) = "3:00"$$
.

$$(-1,0) = "9:00"$$
.

$$(\sqrt{3/4}, 1/2) = "2:00".$$

$$(0, 1) = "12:00"$$
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 "5:00".

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 "5:00".

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 "7:00".

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 "7:00".

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$$(3/5, 4/5). (-3/5, 4/5).$$

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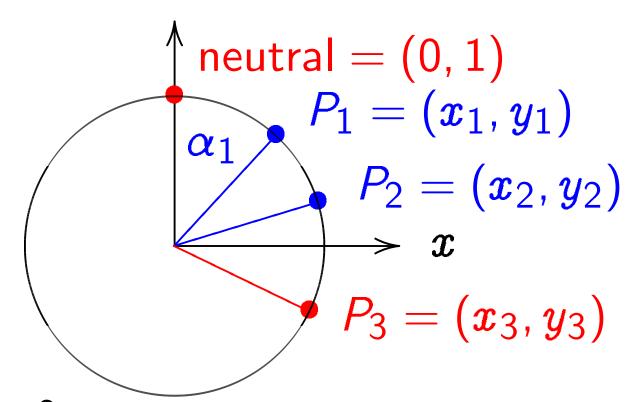
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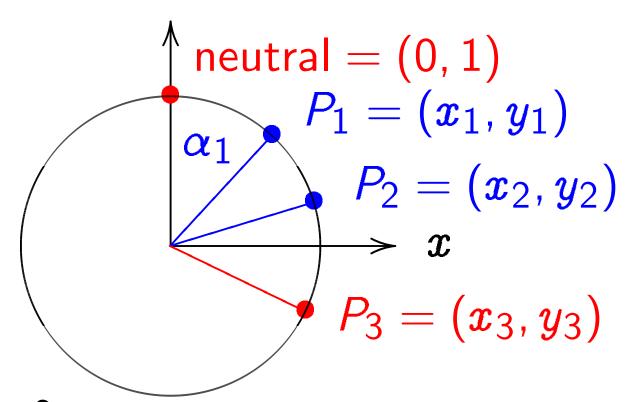
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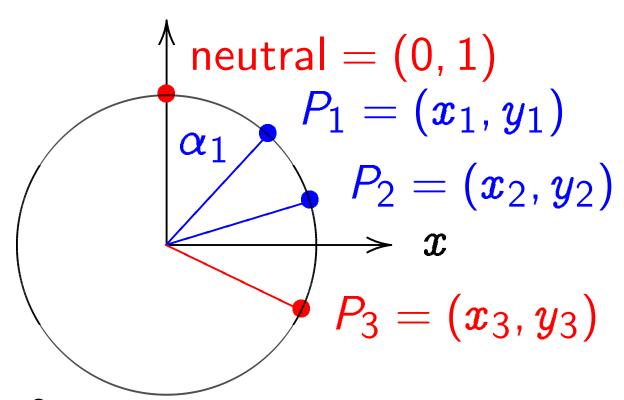
Many more.



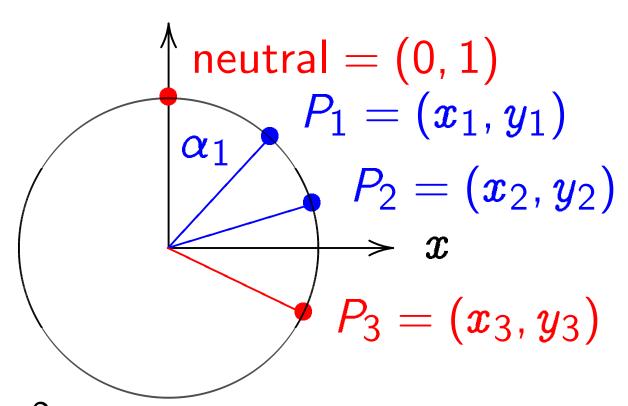
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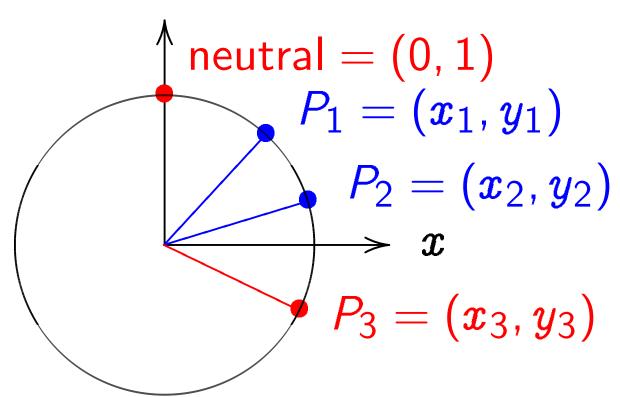


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Adding two points corresponds to adding the angles α_1 and α_2 . Angles modulo 360° are a group, so points on clock are a group.

Neutral element: angle $\alpha = 0$; point (0, 1); "12:00". The point with $\alpha=180^{\circ}$ has order 2 and equals 6:00. 3:00 and 9:00 have order 4. Inverse of point with α is point with $-\alpha$ since $\alpha + (-\alpha) = 0$. There are many more points where angle α is not "nice."

Clock addition without sin, cos: y



Use Cartesian coordinates for addition. Addition formula for the clock $x^2+y^2=1$: sum $(x_1,y_1)+(x_2,y_2)=(x_3,y_3)=(x_1y_2+y_1x_2,y_1y_2-x_1x_2)$. Note $(x_1,y_1)+(-x_1,y_1)=(0,1)$. $kP=\underbrace{P+P+\cdots+P}_{k \text{ copies}}$ for $k\geq 0$.

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$$(x_1, y_1) + (0, 1) =$$

Examples of clock addition:

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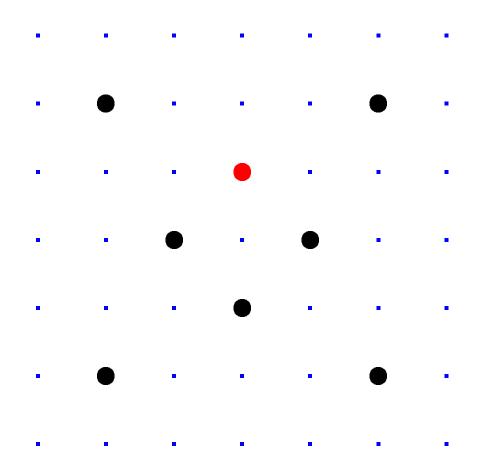
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Clocks over finite fields



Clock(
$$\mathbf{F}_7$$
) = $\{(x,y) \in \mathbf{F}_7 \times \mathbf{F}_7 : x^2 + y^2 = 1\}.$
Here $\mathbf{F}_7 = \{0,1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
= $\{0,1,2,3,-3,-2,-1\}$
with $+,-,\times$ modulo 7.

Larger example: $Clock(\mathbf{F}_{1000003})$.

Examples of clock addition:

$$2(1000, 2) = (4000, 7).$$

$$4(1000, 2) = (56000, 97).$$

$$8(1000, 2) = (863970, 18817).$$

$$16(1000, 2) = (549438, 156853).$$

$$17(1000, 2) = (951405, 877356).$$

With 30 clock additions

we computed

$$n(1000, 2) = (947472, 736284)$$

for some 6-digit n.

Can you figure out n?

Clock cryptography

Standardize a large prime p and some $(X, Y) \in Clock(\mathbf{F}_p)$.

Alice chooses big secret a. Computes her public key a(X, Y).

Bob chooses big secret b. Computes his public key b(X, Y).

Alice computes a(b(X,Y)). Bob computes b(a(X,Y)). I.e., both obtain (ab)(X,Y).

They use this shared value to encrypt with AES-GCM etc.

Alice's secret key a

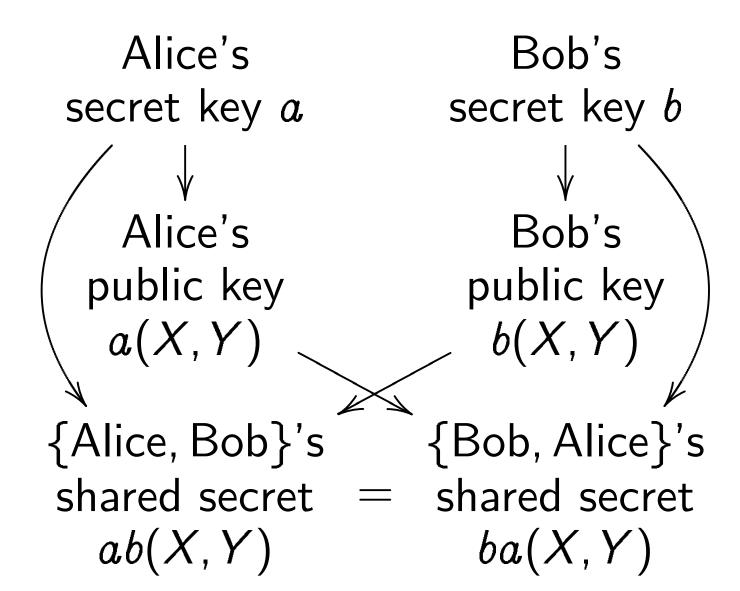
Bob's secret key *b*

Alice's public key a(X, Y)

Bob's public key b(X, Y)

{Alice, Bob}'s shared secret = ab(X, Y)

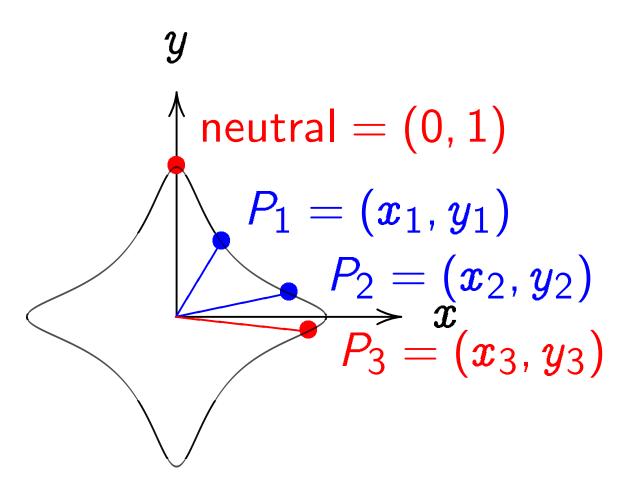
{Bob, Alice}'s shared secret ba(X, Y)



Warning: Clocks aren't elliptic! Can attack clock cryptography, e.g., compute a from public key, by combining congruences. To match RSA-3072 security need $p \approx 2^{1536}$.

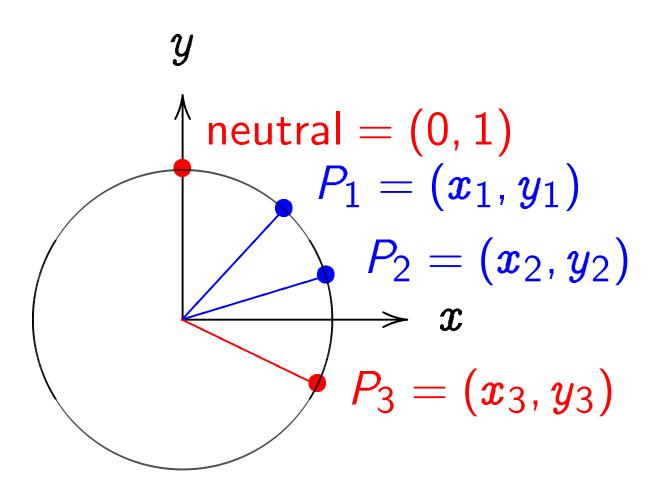
Addition on an Edwards curve

Change the curve on which Alice and Bob work.



$$x^2+y^2=1-30x^2y^2.$$
 Sum of (x_1,y_1) and (x_2,y_2) is $((x_1y_2+y_1x_2)/(1-30x_1x_2y_1y_2), \ (y_1y_2-x_1x_2)/(1+30x_1x_2y_1y_2)).$

The clock again, for comparison:



$$x^2+y^2=1.$$
 Sum of (x_1,y_1) and (x_2,y_2) is $(x_1y_2+y_1x_2,\ y_1y_2-x_1x_2).$

"Hey, there were divisions in the Edwards addition law! What if the denominators are 0?" Answer: They aren't! If $oldsymbol{x}_i = 0$ or $oldsymbol{y}_i = 0$ then $1 \pm 30x_1x_2y_1y_2 = 1 \neq 0.$ If $x^2 + y^2 = 1 - 30x^2y^2$ then $30x^2y^2 < 1$ so $\sqrt{30} |xy| < 1$.

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If $x_1^2+y_1^2=1-30x_1^2y_1^2$ and $x_2^2+y_2^2=1-30x_2^2y_2^2$ then $\sqrt{30}\;|x_1y_1|<1$ and $\sqrt{30}\;|x_2y_2|<1$

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The Edwards addition law

$$(x_1,y_1)+(x_2,y_2)= \\ ((x_1y_2+y_1x_2)/(1-30x_1x_2y_1y_2), \\ (y_1y_2-x_1x_2)/(1+30x_1x_2y_1y_2)) \\ ext{is a group law for the curve} \\ x^2+y^2=1-30x^2y^2.$$

Some calculation required: addition result is on curve; addition law is associative.

Other parts of proof are easy: addition law is commutative; (0,1) is neutral element; $(x_1,y_1)+(-x_1,y_1)=(0,1).$

More Edwards curves

Fix an odd prime power q. Fix a non-square $d \in \mathbf{F}_q$.

$$\{(x,y)\in \mathsf{F}_q imes\mathsf{F}_q: \ x^2+y^2=1+dx^2y^2\}$$

is a commutative group with $(x_1,y_1)+(x_2,y_2)=(x_3,y_3)$ defined by Edwards addition law:

$$x_3 = rac{x_1y_2 + y_1x_2}{1 + dx_1x_2y_1y_2},$$

$$y_3=rac{y_1y_2-x_1x_2}{1-dx_1x_2y_1y_2}.$$

Denominators are never 0. But need different proof; $\mathbf{x}^2 + y^2 > 0$ " doesn't work.

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 $= dx_1^2y_1^2(x_2^2 + y_2^2 + 2x_2y_2)$
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 $=d^2x_1^2y_1^2x_2^2y_2^2+dx_1^2y_1^2+2dx_1^2y_1^2x_2y_2$

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 $=d^2x_1^2y_1^2x_2^2y_2^2+dx_1^2y_1^2+2dx_1^2y_1^2x_2y_2$
 $=1+dx_1^2y_1^2\pm 2x_1y_1$

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 $=dx_1^2y_1^2(dx_2^2y_2^2+1+2x_2y_2)$
 $=d^2x_1^2y_1^2x_2^2y_2^2+dx_1^2y_1^2+2dx_1^2y_1^2x_2y_2$
 $=1+dx_1^2y_1^2\pm 2x_1y_1$
 $=x_1^2+y_1^2\pm 2x_1y_1$

If
$$x_1^2 + y_1^2 = 1 + dx_1^2 y_1^2$$

and $x_2^2 + y_2^2 = 1 + dx_2^2 y_2^2$
and $dx_1 x_2 y_1 y_2 = \pm 1$
then $dx_1^2 y_1^2 (x_2 + y_2)^2$
 $= dx_1^2 y_1^2 (x_2^2 + y_2^2 + 2x_2 y_2)$
 $= dx_1^2 y_1^2 (dx_2^2 y_2^2 + 1 + 2x_2 y_2)$
 $= d^2 x_1^2 y_1^2 x_2^2 y_2^2 + dx_1^2 y_1^2 + 2dx_1^2 y_1^2 x_2 y_2$
 $= 1 + dx_1^2 y_1^2 \pm 2x_1 y_1$
 $= x_1^2 + y_1^2 \pm 2x_1 y_1$
 $= (x_1 \pm y_1)^2$.

Case 1: $x_2 + y_2 \neq 0$. Then

$$d = \left(rac{x_1 \pm y_1}{x_1 y_1 (x_2 + y_2)}
ight)^2$$
,

contradiction.

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Case 2: $x_2 - y_2 \neq 0$. Then

$$d = \left(rac{x_1 \mp y_1}{x_1 y_1 (x_2 - y_2)}
ight)^2$$
,

contradiction.

Case 1: $x_2 + y_2 \neq 0$. Then

$$d = \left(rac{x_1 \pm y_1}{x_1 y_1 (x_2 + y_2)}
ight)^2$$
,

contradiction.

Case 2: $x_2 - y_2 \neq 0$. Then

$$d = \left(rac{x_1 \mp y_1}{x_1 y_1 (x_2 - y_2)}
ight)^2$$
,

contradiction.

Case 3: $x_2 + y_2 = x_2 - y_2 = 0$. Then $x_2 = 0$ and $y_2 = 0$, contradiction.

Using ECC sensibly

Typical starting point: Client knows secret key aand server's public key b(X, Y). Client computes (and caches) shared secret ab(X, Y).

Client has packet for server.

Generates unique nonce.

Uses shared secret to encrypt and authenticate packet.

Total packet overhead:

- 24 bytes for nonce,
- 16 bytes for authenticator,
- 32 bytes for client's public key.

Server receives packet, sees client's public key a(X, Y). Server computes (and caches) shared secret ab(X, Y).

Server uses shared secret to verify authenticator and decrypt packet.

Client and server encrypt, authenticate, verify, and decrypt all subsequent packets in the same way, using the same shared secret.

Easy-to-use packet protection: crypto_box from nacl.cace-project.eu.

High-security curve (Curve25519). High-security implementation (e.g., no secret array indices). Extensive code validation.

Server can compute shared secrets for 1000000 new clients in 40 seconds of computation on a Core 2 Quad.

Not much hope for attacker if ECC user is running this!