

Outline Cours 2

- Part 1 : Asymmetric cryptography, one way function, complexity
- Part 2 : arithmetic complexity and lower bounds : exponentiation
- **Part 3 : Provable security and polynomial time reduction :**
 - P, NP classes. One-way function and NP class.
- Part 4 : RSA : the algorithm
- Part 5 : Provable security of RSA
- Part 6 : Attacks and importance of padding.

One-way function and NP class

- $E : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ (or $\text{Im}(E) \subset \{0,1\}^{n+1}$)
*injective (one-to-one mapping),
and easy to compute i.e. ~linear time to compute $E(X)$*
- $D = E^{-1}$: must be computationally impossible
- We do not know if such functions exist. But:
 - E « easy » to compute $\Rightarrow E \in P$
 - Then, since $D=E^{-1}$ $\Rightarrow D \in NP$
 - Proof: polynomial-time certificate
- Then, look for a convenient D among the most difficult problems inside NP ... conjectured intractable
 - NP-complete ones: eg subset sum/knapsack [Merkle-Hellman, Chor-Rivest...]
 - Conjectured computationally impossible ones: factorization...

Some «hard » problems used to build one-way function

- **Subset sum** [NP-complete]
 - Input : $S, (a_1, \dots, a_n)$; - Output : $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n \sum_{i=1}^n x_i a_i = S$
- **Discrete logarithm** (not known in P nor NP-hard)
 - Input : g, M ; - Output : x tel que $g^x = M$
- **Factorization** (not known in P nor NP-hard...)
 - 1. Input : N - output : factorization of N
 - 2. Input: N, M, C ; - output : d s.t. $M^d \equiv C \pmod{N}$
 - 3. Input : N, e, C ; - output : M s.t. $M^e \equiv C \pmod{N}$
 - 4. Input : N, x ; - output : YES iff $\exists y$ such that $x = y^2 \pmod{N}$

Example 1 : « Exponential and Discrete logarithm »

- $(G, *)$: cyclic group of order n ; g a generator of G
 - $G = \{g^i ; i = 0, \dots, n-1\}$
- **Exponential** : $\text{Exp} : \{0, \dots, n-1\} \rightarrow G$ defined by $\text{Exp}(i) = g^i$
 Computation cost of $\text{Exp}(i) = O(\log(i)) = O(\log n)$ [upper and lower bound, lect2]
 Example : $5^{11} [7] = ((5^2)^2 5)^2 5 = ((4^2) 5)^2 5 = (2.5)^2 5 = 2.5 = 3$
- **Discrete Logarithm**: $\text{Log} : G \rightarrow \{0, \dots, n-1\}$ defined by $\text{Log}(x) = i$ s.t. $x = g^i$
 Example : find $x / 6^x = 8 [11]$

(↴ = x : réponse)

 Best known algorithms for any G in $O(n^{0.5})$ [Shanks]
 - Note : INTEGER-FACTORIZATION $\leq P$ DISCRETE-LOGARITHM
- **Conjectured hard to compute** :
 - Very used in asymmetric cryptography: ex RSA, El Gamal, ECDLP
 - **But** : some specific instances are easy to compute

One-way trapdoor function

- Definition:
 - E is one-way
 - $D(E(x)) = x$ [and $E(D(x)) = x$ for signature]
 - But, given a trapdoor (the secret key),
D is **easy** to compute (almost linear time)
- Provable security:
 - Given $c = E(x)$, computing x is untractable
 - How to prove it? By reduction (contradiction) !
 - assume there exists an algorithm to compute x from c
 - then exhibit an algorithm that computes an untractable problem !

Example 2 : « knapsack » [Merkle-Hellman,78]

- SUBSETSUM $\in NP$ -complete
 - Input : (a_1, \dots, a_n) and S integers
 - Output : YES iff it exists $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n$: $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i a_i = S$
- Idea for an encoding: $E(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i a_i$
- Building a trapdoor function
 - Easy to solve instance; choose (a_1, \dots, a_n) **super-increasing**.
 - What is the decoding algorithm?
 - Hiding simplicity $b_i = t.a_i \bmod m$ with t secret and prime to m
 - Public : (b_1, \dots, b_n) and m : $E(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i b_i \bmod m$
 - Secret : (a_1, \dots, a_n) , t and $u = t^{-1} \bmod m$:
 - Decoding: just compute $(S.u \bmod n)$ and decode from (a_1, \dots, a_n)

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- Part 6 : Importance of padding. Application to RSA signature.

Provable security of RSA

Rivest / Shamir / Adleman (1977)

Outlines:

- RSA cipher: E and D
- **Provable security of RSA**
 1. $E(D(x)) = D(E(x)) = x$
 2. E is easy to compute
 3. E is hard to invert without knowing D

RSA

Alice

Wants to send secret M to Bob

Eva

$E^{Bob}(x)$

Bob

1/ Building keys - Bob

- p, q large prime numbers
- $n = p \times q$
- $\varphi(n) = (p-1)*(q-1)$
- e small, prime to $\varphi(n)$
- $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
- Private key : (d, n)
Public key : (e, n)
- $\forall x \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} :$
 $D^{Bob}(x) = x^d \pmod{n}$
 $E^{Bob}(x) = x^e \pmod{n}$

RSA

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Wants to send secret M to Bob

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2. $M = M_1 M_2 \dots M_m$ such that

$M_i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$

i.e. each block has $\log_2 n$ bits

3. Compute $S_i = E^{Bob}(M_i)$

4. Sends $S_1 \dots S_i \dots S_m$

$S_1 \dots S_i \dots S_m$

Public: $E^{Bob}(x)$

Bob

1/ Building keys - Bob

- $\forall x \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} :$
private: $D^{Bob}(x) = x^d \pmod{n}$
public: $E^{Bob}(x) = x^e \pmod{n}$

5. Compute $M_i = D^{Bob}(S_i)$

$M = M_1 M_2 \dots M_m$

Provable security of RSA

1. To generate a RSA key $[(n, d), (n, e)]$ is easy (almost linear time)
2. D^{Bob} is the inverse of E^{Bob} :
 - $\forall x \in \{0, \dots, n-1\} : D^{Bob}(E^{Bob}(x)) = E^{Bob}(D^{Bob}(x)) = x$
3. E^{Bob} is a one-way trap-door function :
 - a) $E^{Bob}(x)$ is easy to compute (in almost linear time)
 - b) $D^{Bob}(x)$ is easy to compute (in almost linear time) for the one who knows the trapdoor d
 - c) **Recover x from $E^{Bob}(x)$ is computationally impossible**
 - Conjectured
 - **Theorem:** Breaking the RSA private key, ie computing d from n and e is computationally more difficult than factorising n
=> Believed secure if its hard to factor big numbers

Challenges RSA

Challenge	Price	Date
RSA-576	\$10 000	3/12/2003 [Franke&al]
RSA-640	\$ 20 000	2/12/2005 [Bahr&al]
RSA-704	\$30 000	open
RSA-768	\$50 000	open
RSA-896	\$75 000	open
RSA-1024	\$100 000	open
RSA-1536	\$150 000	open
RSA-2048	\$200 000	open

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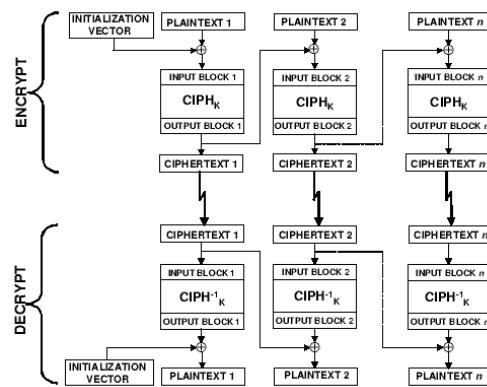
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Application to RSA signature.**

Complements on RSA

- Choice of the keys:
 - p, q: primes large enough [512 bits, 1024 bits=> RSA 2048]
 - d large ($> N^{1/4}$ [attaque de Wiener])
 - e small (efficiency and ensures d to be large):
 - e=3, 17, 65537 [X.509 norm: **e=65537**, only 17 multiplication]
 - p such that $p-1$ has a large prime factor: $p=2.p'+1$ (idem for q)
[Gordon algorithm based on Miller-Rabin primality test]
- Other attacks
 - Timing-attack: based on the analysis of the time to compute $x^d \bmod n$:
 - *Blinding* trick: to decode, choose a random r and compute $(r^e x)^d \cdot r^{-1} \bmod n$
 - Chosen-ciphertext attack, adaptive chosen ciphertext attack
 - Frequency analysis

Protection: Padding and chaining

- Protection: always add some random initialization bits to the first block and use a chaining mode.
- Eg: mode **CBC** [Cipher Block Chaining]

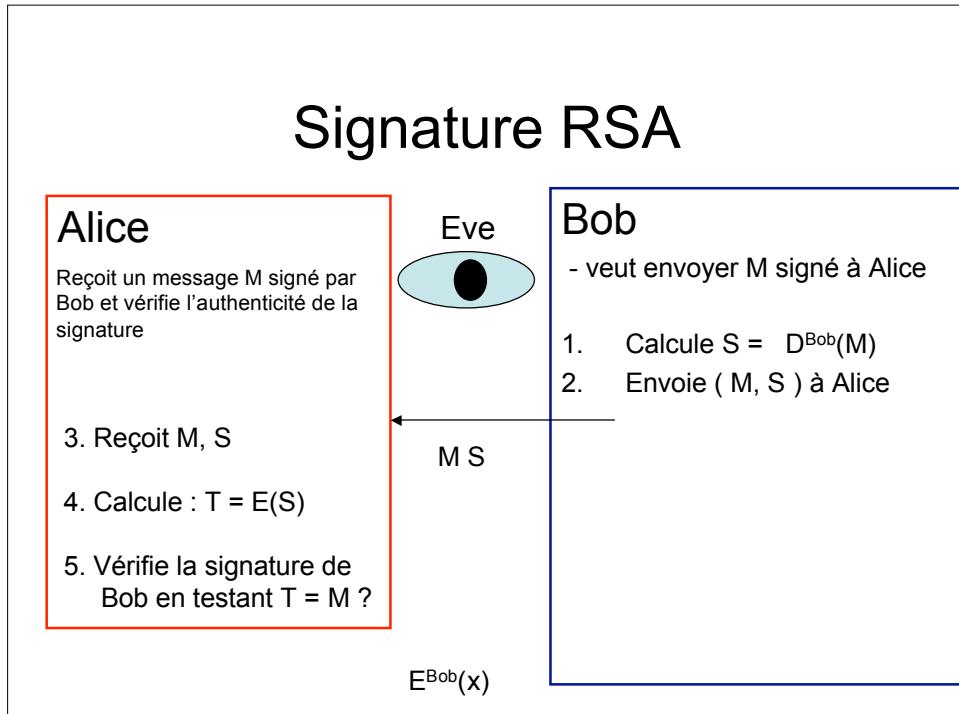


- Other modes: OFB, Counter, GCM

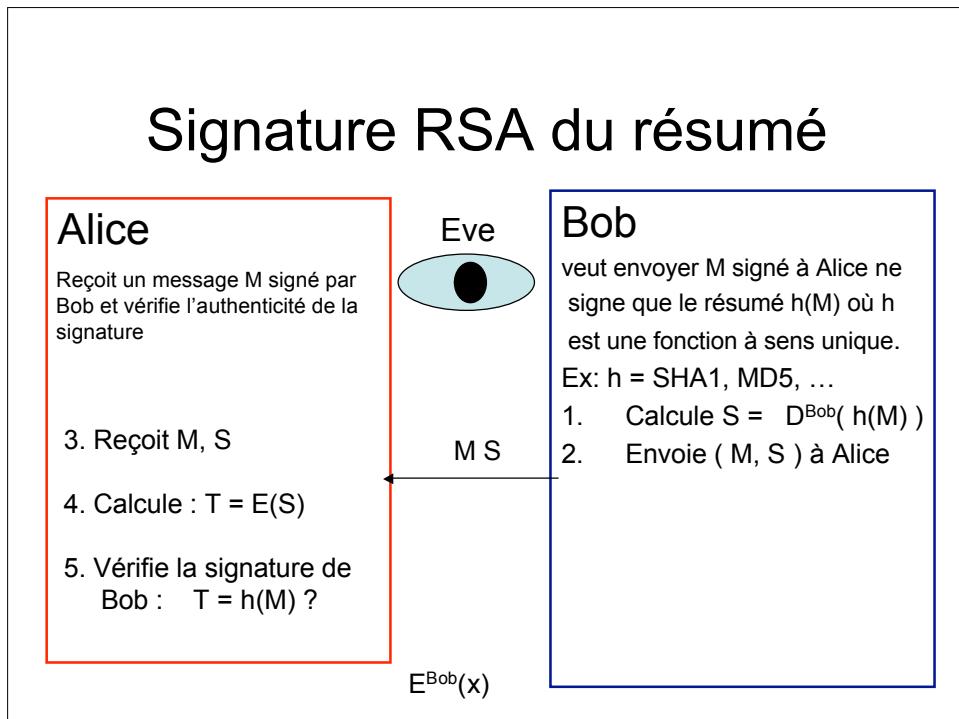
Applications Chiffrement à clef publique / RSA

- Authentification
- Signature

Signature RSA



Signature RSA du résumé



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Summary Lecture 2

- Provable security relies on complexity
- Breaking and RSA key is proved more difficult than factorization
 - But decrypting a message without computing d remains an open question
 - There exists variants that are proved more difficult than factorization [Rabin]:
 - But they are more expensive than RSA
 - Choices of the key (size and form of the primes) matters
- There exist other protocols with comparable security and smaller keys [ECDLP,...]
- Importance of padding and hash function
- -> Next lecture: provable random number generators and hash functions