## Outline

|  | I – Basics   | <ul> <li>Cryptography</li> <li>Introduction</li> <li>Formal Notations</li> </ul>  |                               |  |
|--|--|---|-------------------------------|--|
| Ecole<br>ECOLE<br>ENS<br>Cryptographi<br>Noven | David Pointcheval<br>normale supérieure, CNRS & INRIA<br>Constructions<br>IACR-SEAMS School<br>ie: Foundations and New Directions<br>nber 2016 – Hanoi – Vietnam | <ul> <li>2 Provable Security         <ul> <li>Definition</li> <li>Computational As</li> <li>Some Reductions</li> </ul> </li> <li>3 Public-Key Encryp         <ul> <li>One-Wayness</li> <li>Indistinguishabilit</li> </ul> </li> <li>4 Conclusion</li> </ul> | ssumptions<br>s<br>otion<br>y |  |
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| Outline  |  | Secrecy of Comm   | nunications                   |  |

One ever wanted to communicate secretly



With the all-digital world, security needs are even stronger

Cryptography

Introduction

Conclusion

Formal Notations

**Provable Security** 

**Public-Key Encryption** 

1

Shannon provides a definition of secrecy:

#### Perfect Secrecy

The ciphertext does not reveal any (additional) information about the plaintext: no more than known before

- a priori information about the plaintext, defined by the distribution probability of the plaintext
- a posteriori information about the plaintext, defined by the distribution probability of the plaintext, given the ciphertext

Both distributions should be perfectly identical

#### Perfect Secrecy vs. Practical Secrecy

- No information about the plaintext *m* is in the ciphertext *c* without the knowledge of the key *k* 
  - $\Rightarrow$  information theory

No information about the plaintext *m* can be extracted from the ciphertext *c*, even for a powerful adversary (unlimited time and/or unlimited power): perfect secrecy

■ In practice: adversaries are limited in time/power ⇒ complexity theory



## **Asymmetric Encryption: Formalism**

Public Key Cryptography – Diffie-Hellman (1976)

## Outline

#### Bob's public key is used by Alice as a parameter to encrypt a message to Bob Bob's private key is used by Bob as a parameter to decrypt **Provable Security** 2 ciphertexts Definition Computational Assumptions Some Reductions **Public-Key Encryption** Secrecy of the private key $sk \Rightarrow$ secrecy of communications Because of *pk*, perfect secrecy is definitely impossible! ENS/CNRS/INRIA Paris, France **David Pointcheval** 9/40ENS/CNRS/INRIA Paris, France David Pointcheval What is a Secure Cryptographic Scheme/Protocol? **Provable Security**

- Public-key encryption: Secrecy of the private key sk ⇒ secrecy of communications
- What does mean secrecy?
  - $\rightarrow$  Security notions have to be formally defined
- How to guarantee above security claims for concrete schemes? → Provable security

One can prove that:

- if an adversary is able to break the cryptographic scheme
- then one can break a well-known hard problem



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## **General Method**

## Outline

#### **Computational Security Proofs**

In order to prove the security of a cryptographic scheme/protocol, one needs

- a formal security model (security notions)
- acceptable computational assumptions (hard problems)
- a reduction: if one can break the security notions, then one can break the hard problem





#### 1 Cryptography

- 2 Provable Security
  - Definition
  - Computational Assumptions
  - Some Reductions
- **3** Public-Key Encryption

#### 4 Conclusion

**Integer Factoring** 

Given n = pq

Find p and q

Digits

129

130

140

155

160

200

232

Date

April 1994

April 1996

February 1999

August 1999

April 2003

May 2005

December 2009

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|------------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------|----|
| Integer Factoring            |                   | [Lenstra-Verheul 2000] | Integer Factoring            | Records           |    |

#### **Integer Factoring**

- Given n = pq
- Find p and q

| Year        | Required Complexity | n bitlength |  |
|-------------|---------------------|-------------|--|
| before 2000 | 64                  | 768         |  |
| before 2010 | 80                  | 1024        |  |
| before 2020 | 112                 | 2048        |  |
| before 2030 | 128                 | 3072        |  |
|             | 192                 | 7680        |  |
|             | 256                 | 15360       |  |

Note that the reduction may be lossy: extra bits are then required

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Details

**Quadratic Sieve** 

**Algebraic Sieve** 

512 bits

768 bits

## **Discrete Logarithm**

#### RSA

#### [Rivest-Shamir-Adleman 1978]

- Given n = pq, e and  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$
- Find x such that  $y = x^e \mod n$

Note that this problem is hard without the prime factors p and q, but becomes easy with them: if  $d = e^{-1} \mod \varphi(n)$ , then  $x = y^d \mod n$ 

#### **Flexible RSA**

#### [Baric-Pfitzmann and Fujisaki-Okamoto 1997]

- Given n = pq and  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$
- Find x and e > 1 such that  $y = x^e \mod n$

Both problems are assumed as hard as integer factoring: the prime factors are a trapdoor to find solutions ENS/CNRS/INRIA Paris, France David Pointcheval

## **Success Probabilities**

For any computational problem P, we quantify the quality of an adversary A by its success probability in finding the solution:

 $Succ^{P}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\text{instance}) \rightarrow \text{solution}]$ 

We quantify the hardness of the problem by the success probability of the best adversary within time t:  $Succ(t) = \max_{|\mathcal{A}| \le t} \{Succ(\mathcal{A})\}$ Note that the probability space can be restricted:

some inputs are fixed, and others only are randomly chosen

## **Discrete Logarithm Problem**

We usually fix the group  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$  of order q, X is randomly chosen:

$$\operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{\mathsf{dlp}}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr_{x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q} [\mathcal{A}(g^x) o x]$$

## **Discrete Logarithm Problem**

• Given  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g 
angle$  a cyclic group of order q, and  $y \in \mathbb{G}$ 

Find x such that  $y = g^x$ 

Possible groups:  $\mathbb{G}\in (\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{\star},\times),$  or an elliptic curve

## (Computational) Diffie Hellman Problem

Given G = (g) a cyclic group of order q, and X = g<sup>x</sup>, Y = g<sup>y</sup>
Find Z = g<sup>xy</sup>

The knowledge of *x* or *y* helps to solve this problem (trapdoor)

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## **Decisional Problem**

### (Decisional) Diffie Hellman Problem

- Given  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$  a cyclic group of order q, and  $X = g^x$ ,  $Y = g^y$ , as well as a candidate  $Z \in \mathbb{G}$
- Decide whether  $Z = g^{xy}$

In such a case, the adversary is called a distinguisher (outputs 1 bit) A good distinguisher should behave in significantly different manners according to the input distribution:

$$\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y, Z) = 1 | Z = g^{xy}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y, Z) = 1 | Z \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}]$$

$$\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(t) = \max_{|\mathcal{A}| \leq t} \{\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(\mathcal{A})\}$$

## **Distribution Indistinguishability**

# **Distribution Indistinguishability**

#### Indistinguishabilities

Let  $\mathcal{D}_0$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$ , two distributions on a finite set *X*:

**D**<sub>0</sub> and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  are perfectly indistinguishable if

$$\mathsf{Dist}(\mathcal{D}_0, \mathcal{D}_1) = \sum_{x \in X} \left| \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_1}[a = x] - \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_0}[a = x] \right| = 0$$

**D**<sub>0</sub> and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  are statistically indistinguishable if

$$\mathsf{Dist}(\mathcal{D}_0, \mathcal{D}_1) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left| \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_1}[a = x] - \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_0}[a = x] \right| = \mathsf{negl}()$$

#### **Computational Indistinguishability**

Let  $\mathcal{D}_0$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$ , two distributions on a finite set *X*,

 $\blacksquare$  a distinguisher  $\mathcal A$  between  $\mathcal D_0$  and  $\mathcal D_1$ 

$$\operatorname{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_0,\mathcal{D}_1}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_1}[\mathcal{A}(a) = 1] - \Pr_{a \in \mathcal{D}_0}[\mathcal{A}(a) = 1]$$

 $\blacksquare$  the computational indistinguishability of  $\mathcal{D}_0$  and  $\mathcal{D}_1$  is

$$\mathbf{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_0,\mathcal{D}_1}(t) = \max_{|\mathcal{A}| \le t} \{ \mathbf{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_0,\mathcal{D}_1}(\mathcal{A}) \}$$

#### Theorem

$$\forall t, \quad \mathbf{Adv}^{\mathcal{D}_0, \mathcal{D}_1}(t) \leq \mathbf{Dist}(\mathcal{D}_0, \mathcal{D}_1)$$

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|-----------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------|---|
| Outline                     |                   | $DDH \leq CDH \leq DLP$           |                   |   |

### 1 Cryptography

#### 2 Provable Security

- Definition
- Computational Assumptions
- Some Reductions

### **3** Public-Key Encryption

### 4 Conclusion

## $CDH \leq DLP$

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary against the **DLP** within time *t*, then we build an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  against the **CDH**: given *X* and *Y*,  $\mathcal{B}$  runs  $\mathcal{A}$  on *X*, that outputs *x*' (correct or not); then  $\mathcal{B}$  outputs  $Y^{x'}$ 

The running time t' of  $\mathcal{B}$  is the same as  $\mathcal{A}$ , plus one exponentiation:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{Succ}^{\mathsf{cdh}}_{\mathbb{G}}(t') \geq \mathbf{Succ}^{\mathsf{cdh}}_{\mathbb{G}}(\mathcal{B}) &= \mathsf{Pr}[\mathcal{B}(X,Y) \to g^{xy} = Y^x] \\ &= \mathsf{Pr}[\mathcal{A}(X) \to x] = \mathbf{Succ}^{\mathsf{dlp}}_{\mathbb{G}}(\mathcal{A}) \end{split}$$

Taking the maximum on the adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$ :

$$\operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{cdh}}(t + au_{\operatorname{exp}}) \geq \operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{dlp}}(t)$$

## $\text{DDH} \leq \text{CDH} \leq \text{DLP}$

## Outline

#### $\text{DDH} \leq \text{CDH}$

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary against the **CDH** within time t, we build an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  against the **DDH**: given X, Y and  $Z, \mathcal{B}$  runs  $\mathcal{A}$  on (X, Y), that outputs Z'; then  $\mathcal{B}$  outputs 1 if Z' = Z and 0 otherwise The running time of  $\mathcal{B}$  is the same as  $\mathcal{A}$ : and  $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(t)$  is greater than  $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(\mathcal{B}) = \Pr[\mathcal{B} \to 1 | Z = g^{xy}] - \Pr[\mathcal{B} \to 1 | Z \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}]$ 

$$= \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y) \to Z | Z = g^{xy}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y) \to Z | Z \stackrel{H}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}$$
$$= \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y) \to g^{xy}] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(X, Y) \to Z | Z \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}]$$
$$= \operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{cdh}}(\mathcal{A}) - 1/q$$

Taking the maximum on the adversaries  $\mathcal{A}$ :

$$\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(t) \geq \operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{cdh}}(t) - 1/q$$

#### 1 Cryptography

### 2 Provable Security

### **3** Public-Key Encryption

- One-Wayness
- Indistinguishability

#### 4 Conclusion

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OW – CPA

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# Public-Key Encryption



#### **One-Wayness**

For a public-key encryption scheme  $S = (\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$ , without the secrete key *sk*, it should be computationally impossible to recover the plaintext *m* from the ciphertext *c*:

 $\mathbf{Succ}^{\mathsf{ow}}_{\mathcal{S}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[(sk, pk) \leftarrow \mathcal{K}(); m \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{M}; c = \mathcal{E}_{pk}(m) : \mathcal{A}(pk, c) \rightarrow m]$ should be negligible

#### Chosen-Plaintext Attacks

In the public-key setting, the adversary has access to the encryption key (the public key), and thus can encrypt any plaintext of its choice: chosen-plaintext attack

Goal: Privacy/Secrecy of the plaintext

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$$\operatorname{Succ}_{\mathcal{EG}}^{\operatorname{\mathsf{ow-cpa}}}(t) \leq \operatorname{Succ}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{\mathsf{cdh}}}(t)$$

Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary against  $\mathcal{EG}$ , we build an adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  against **CDH**: let us be given a **CDH** instance (*X*, *Y*)

- $\mathcal{A}$  gets  $pk \leftarrow X$  from  $\mathcal{B}$
- $\blacksquare \ \mathcal{B} \text{ sets } c_1 \leftarrow Y$
- $\mathcal{B}$  chooses  $c_2 \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}$  (this implicitly defines  $m^* = c_2/\mathsf{CDH}(X, Y)$ ), and sends  $c = (c_1, c_2)$
- $\mathcal{B}$  receives *m* from  $\mathcal{A}$  and outputs  $c_2/m$
- Pr[ $m = m^*$ ] = Succ<sup>ow-cpa</sup><sub> $\mathcal{EG}$ </sub> $(\mathcal{A})$ = Pr[ $c_2/m = c_2/m^*$ ] = Pr[ $c_2/m = CDH(X, Y)$ ]  $\leq$  Succ<sup>cdh</sup><sub> $\mathbb{G}$ </sub>(t)

- 1 Cryptography
- **2** Provable Security
- **3** Public-Key Encryption
  - One-Wayness
  - Indistinguishability
- 4 Conclusion

## Is OW – CPA Enough?

## **IND** – CPA Security Game

For a yes/no answer or sell/buy order,

one bit of information may be enough for the adversary! How to model that no bit of information leaks?

#### Semantic Security / Indistinguishability

#### [Goldwasser-Micali 1984]

After having chosen two plaintexts  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ , upon receiving the encryption of  $m_b$  (for a random bit *b*), it should be hard to guess which message has been encrypted:

 $(sk, pk) \leftarrow \mathcal{K}(); (m_0, m_1, \text{state}) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(pk);$  $b \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}; c = \mathcal{E}_{pk}(m_b); b' \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\text{state}, c)$ 

$$\operatorname{Adv}^{\operatorname{\mathsf{ind-cpa}}}_{\mathcal{S}}(\mathcal{A}) = \operatorname{Pr}[b'=1|b=1] - \operatorname{Pr}[b'=1|b=0]$$



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|----------------------|----------|-------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------|
|                      |          |                   |                                   |                   |

## **ElGamal Encryption**

# ElGamal is IND - CPA: Proof

**ElGamal Encryption** 

The ElGamal encryption scheme  $\mathcal{EG}$  is defined, in a group  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$  of order q, for  $m \in \mathbb{G}$ 

- $\mathcal{K}(\mathbb{G}, g, q)$ :  $x \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q$ , and  $sk \leftarrow x$  and  $pk \leftarrow y = g^x$
- $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(m)$ :  $r \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{Z}_q$ ,  $c_1 \leftarrow g^r$  and  $c_2 \leftarrow y^r \times m = pk^r \times m$ Then, the ciphertext is  $c = (c_1, c_2)$
- $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(c)$  outputs  $c_2/c_1^x = c_2/c_1^{sk}$

#### Theorem (ElGamal is IND – CPA)

$$\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathcal{EG}}^{\operatorname{ind-cpa}}(t) \leq 2 imes \operatorname{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\operatorname{ddh}}(t)$$

Let A be an adversary against  $\mathcal{EG}$ , we build an adversary B against **DDH**: let us be given a **DDH** instance (X, Y, Z)

- $\mathcal{A}$  gets  $pk \leftarrow X$  from  $\mathcal{B}$ , and outputs  $(m_0, m_1)$
- $\blacksquare \ \mathcal{B} \text{ sets } c_1 \leftarrow Y$
- $\mathcal{B}$  chooses  $b \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}$ , sets  $c_2 \leftarrow Z \times m_b$ , and sends  $c = (c_1, c_2)$
- $\mathcal{B}$  receives *b*′ from  $\mathcal{A}$  and outputs d = (b' = b)

• 
$$2 \times \Pr[b' = b] - 1$$
  
=  $Adv_{\mathcal{EG}}^{ind-cpa}(\mathcal{A})$ , if  $Z = CDH(X, Y)$   
= 0, otherwise

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## $\mathcal{RSA}$ Encryption

As a consequence,

- $\blacksquare 2 \times \Pr[b' = b | Z = CDH(X, Y)] 1 = \mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{EG}}^{\mathrm{ind-cpa}}(\mathcal{A})$
- $2 \times \Pr[b' = b | Z \stackrel{R}{\leftarrow} \mathbb{G}] 1 = 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{EG}}^{\mathsf{ind-cpa}}(\mathcal{A}) &= 2 \times \begin{pmatrix} \Pr[d=1|Z=\mathsf{CDH}(X,Y)] \\ -\Pr[d=1|Z \xleftarrow{R}{\mathbb{G}}] \\ &= 2 \times \mathsf{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\mathsf{ddh}}(\mathcal{B}) \leq 2 \times \mathsf{Adv}_{\mathbb{G}}^{\mathsf{ddh}}(t) \end{aligned}$$

#### $\mathcal{RSA}$ Encryption

The RSA encryption scheme  $\mathcal{RSA}$  is defined by

- *K*(1<sup>k</sup>): *p* and *q* two random *k*-bit prime integers, and an exponent *e* (possibly fixed, or not):
   *sk* ← *d* = *e*<sup>-1</sup> mod φ(*n*) and *pk* ← (*n*, *e*)
- $\mathcal{E}_{pk}(m)$ : the ciphertext is  $c = m^e \mod n$
- $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(c)$ : the plaintext is  $m = c^d \mod n$

#### Theorem ( $\mathcal{RSA}$ is OW – CPA, but...)

$$\operatorname{Succ}_{\mathcal{RSA}}^{\operatorname{ow-cpa}}(t) \leq \operatorname{Succ}^{\operatorname{rsa}}(t)$$

A deterministic encryption scheme cannot be IND – CPA

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### 4 Conclusion

Global methodology for provable security:

- a formal security model (security notions)
- acceptable computational assumptions (hard problems)
- a reduction: if one can break the security notions, then one can break the hard problem

We will apply this methodology

- on advanced security notions for encryption
- to signature schemes