

Modern Cryptography

2025 – 1Q

Wakaha Ogata

E-mail:ogata.w.aa@m.titech.ac.jp

Contents

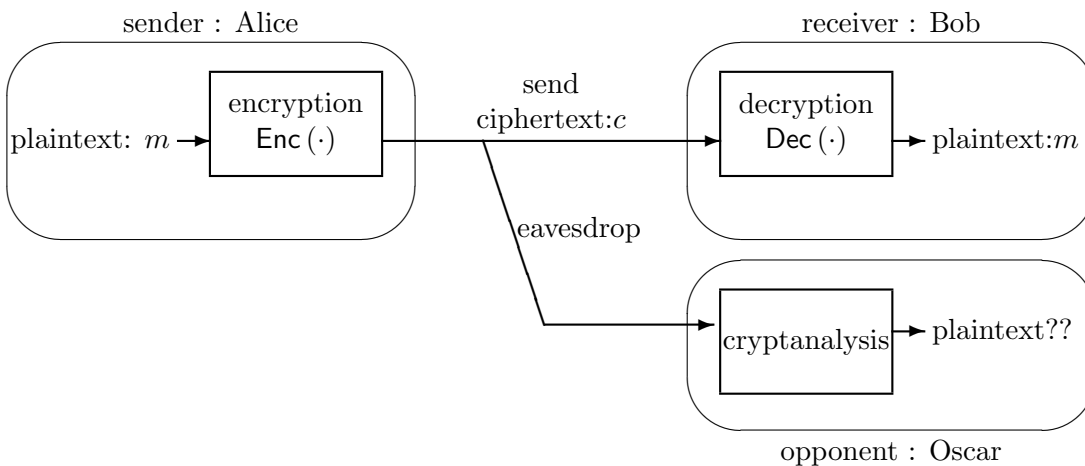
1	Private-key Cryptosystem	1
1.1	Basics of (symmetric) cryptosystem	1
1.2	Security of cryptosystem / Adversary model	2
1.3	Another classification of security	5
1.4	Three main subjects	6
1.5	Block cipher and mode of operation	7
1.5.1	Block cipher	7
1.5.2	Mode of operation	7
1.5.3	AES	10
2	Public-Key Cryptosystem	13
2.1	Public-key system v.s. private-key system	13
2.2	Security models	15
2.3	One-way function and trapdoor one-way function	15
2.4	Number theory 1	17
2.5	Rabin cryptosystem	19
2.6	Number theory 2	22
2.7	ElGamal cryptosystem	23
2.8	Elliptic curves	24
2.9	ElGamal cryptosystem on elliptic curve	27
3	Key Agreement	29
3.1	Security model	29
3.2	Diffie-Hellman key exchange	30
3.3	Man-in-the-middle attack	33
3.4	ECDH	34
3.5	Security of ElGamal cryptosystem	35

4	Message Authentication Code (MAC)	37
4.1	Security models	37
4.2	Number theory	39
4.3	Unconditionally secure MAC	39
4.4	Computationally secure MAC	42
5	Digital Signature	45
5.1	Digital signature v.s. message authentication	45
5.2	Security Models	46
5.3	Signature scheme from trapdoor one-way permutations	47
5.4	ElGamal signature and DSA	52
5.5	BLS signature	54
6	Zero-knowledge Proof	59
6.1	Decision problem, Instance, Language	59
6.2	Interactive Proof (IP)	60
6.3	Zero-knowledge interactive proof (ZKIP)	61
6.4	User Authentication	66
6.5	Non-interactive Proof and Application to Digital Signature	70
7	Secret Sharing Scheme	73
7.1	Model of secret sharing scheme	73
7.2	Construction of secret sharing schemes	74
7.3	Verifiability	78
7.4	Application to multiparty protocol	79
7.5	Application to threshold cryptosystem	83
8	Hash Function	85
8.1	Basic properties of hash functions	85
8.2	Merkle-Damgard construction	86
8.3	Birthday attack	88
8.4	Application of hashing : Validation of outsourcing data	89
9	Pseudorandom Generator	91
9.1	Security definitions	92
9.2	Construction of PRG	94

Chapter 1

Private-key Cryptosystem

1.1 Basics of (symmetric) cryptosystem



Cryptosystem: (Enc, Dec) and ..

Keys: A “key” is used for encryption and decryption ($\text{Enc}_k(m), \text{Dec}_k(c)$).

How to share the key?

... We assume that they can share a key in some manner.

Example 1.1 (Caesar cipher/Shift cipher)

Shift k alphabet characters. (key= k)

for $k = 3$, $\text{Enc}_3(A) = D$, $\text{Enc}_3(B) = E$, $\text{Enc}_3(X) = A$,

for $k = 5$, $\text{Enc}_5(A) = F$, $\text{Enc}_5(B) = G$

A B C D E F G X Y Z A B ...

Example 1.2 (Permutation cipher)

Permute the order of characters. (key = permutation π)

for $\pi = (3, 4, 1, 5, 2)$,

$\text{Enc}_\pi(ABCDE) = CDAEB$

$\text{Enc}_\pi(\text{Alice}) = icAel$

Example 1.3 (One-time pad)

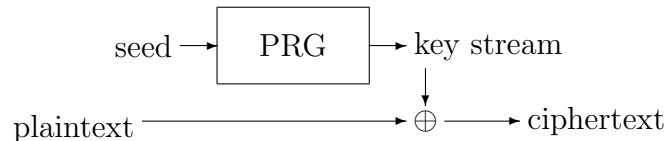
Xor the key bit (string) and the plaintext bit (string).

plaintext : $m_1 m_2 m_3 \dots (m_i = 0 \text{ or } 1)$

key : $k_1 k_2 k_3 \dots (k_i = 0 \text{ or } 1)$

ciphertext : $\text{Enc}_{k_1 k_2 \dots}(m_1 m_2 \dots) : c_1 c_2 c_3 \dots (c_i = m_i \oplus k_i)$

The key stream is used and then discarded. For practical use, a pseudo-random generator is used to generate a key stream from a short bit string. (stream cipher)



1.2 Security of cryptosystem / Adversary model

Secure = unbreakable against adversaries.

Adversary model = [who the adversary is] \times [what he wants to do]

Who the adversary is / position: We always assume that Oscar knows the encryption algorithm. In addition, he can:

- wire-tap ... ciphertexts (Ciphertext only attack)
- obtain a plaintext published later
... some plaintexts and the corresponding ciphertexts
(Known plaintext attack)
- access to the encryption machine (with an unknown key)
... plaintexts chosen by himself and the corresponding ciphertexts
(Chosen plaintext attack)

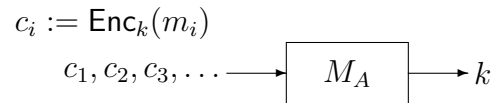
- access to the decryption machine (with an unknown key)
... ciphertexts chosen by himself and the corresponding plaintexts
(Chosen ciphertext attack)

What he wants to do / goal: Oscar wishes

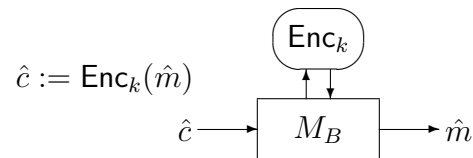
- to find the key,
- to find the plaintext of a given ciphertext, (cryptanalysis)
- to distinguish ciphertexts (whether the plaintext is “yes” or “no”).



(Example) adversary model A : to find the key under ciphertext only attack.



(Example) adversary model B : to cryptanalyze under chosen plaintext attack.



In both cases, we assume that k is chosen randomly from a set \mathcal{K} called key space, m_i and \hat{m} are chosen randomly from a (sufficiently large) set \mathcal{M} .

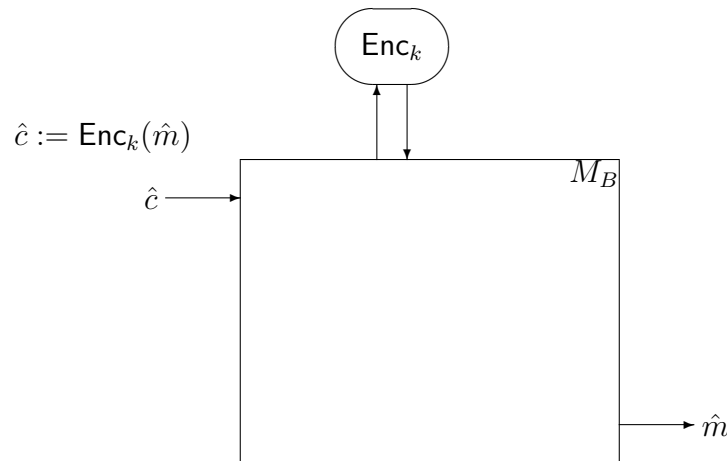
Definition 1.1 (Security of cryptosystem (informal)) *For a fixed adversary model (specified by Oscar's ability and goal), a cryptosystem is said to be secure, if there is no efficient algorithm that achieves the goal by using the ability.*

Which system is more secure?

- cryptosystem X that is secure in adversary model A.
- cryptosystem Y that is secure in adversary model B.

Theorem 1.1 (Relation between security notions (informal)) *If a cryptosystem is secure in adversary model B, then it is also secure in adversary model A.*

(Proof) It is sufficient to construct an efficient algorithm M_B that achieves the goal in adversary model B by using an efficient attack algorithm M_A that achieves the goal in adversary model A.



Concrete examples of attack:

- Classical attack (Oscar uses the knowledge that the plaintext is written in English)
 - ... cryptanalysis under ciphertext only attack
- Exhaustive search (Oscar searches over all the possible keys)
 - ... find the key under known plaintext attack
- Differential attack (Oscar prepares many pairs of plaintexts that have constant differential and collects their corresponding ciphertexts, and then guesses the key)
 - ... find the key under chosen plaintext attack

1.3 Another classification of security

- Unconditionally secure : one cannot break the cryptosystem even if he has infinite computational power.
- Computationally secure : one can break the cryptosystem if he has infinite computational power, but the attack is *infeasible*. (e.g., it takes 10,000 years even if he uses TSUBAME).

Security	Advantage	Disadvantage	Example
unconditional	absolute security	$ \text{key} \geq \text{plaintext} $	One-time-pad
computational	a key is reusable	conditional security	AES, RSA

Cryptosystems in which a fixed length single key is used to encrypt many plaintexts cannot be unconditionally secure against known plaintext attack (but can be computationally secure).

When we can say “infeasible”?

Computational complexity $T(n)$: the number of steps needed to output a computation result when the input is n -bit. Usually it is expressed by using Big O notation $O(\cdot)$.

- addition : $T_{\text{add}}(n) = O(n)$
- multiplication : $T_{\text{mult}}(n) = O(n^2)$
- AKS primality test : $T_{\text{AKS}}(n) \approx O(n^6)$
- exhaustive key search attack (ciphertext length \approx key length = n) :
 $T_{\text{ex-attack}}(n) = O(2^n)$

Number of steps and computation time (10^{12} steps = 1 sec.)			
n	$T(n) = n^2$	$T(n) = n^6$	$T(n) = 2^n$
1	1 (1.0 $\times 10^{-12}$ sec)	1 (1.0 $\times 10^{-12}$ sec)	2 (2.0 $\times 10^{-12}$ sec)
10	100 (1.0 $\times 10^{-10}$ sec)	10^6 (1.0 $\times 10^{-6}$ sec)	1024 (1.0 $\times 10^{-9}$ sec)
50	2500 (2.5 $\times 10^{-9}$ sec)	(1.56 $\times 10^{-2}$ sec)	(1.1 $\times 10^3$ sec ≈ 19 min)
100	10000 (1.0 $\times 10^{-8}$ sec)	(1.0 sec)	(1.3 $\times 10^{18}$ sec $\approx 4.1 \times 10^{10}$ years)

Classification of problems. For a given problem,

- if there exists an algorithm which solves the problem with polynomial steps, i.e., $T(n) = O(n^d)$ for some d , then the problem is called **easy**.
- if there is no algorithm which solves the problem with polynomial steps, e.g., $T(n)$ is an exponential function, $O(2^n)$, for any algorithms, then the problem is called **difficult**.

For a computationally secure cryptosystem,

- encryption/decryption must be easy for legitimated users.
- cryptanalysis must be difficult for any attackers.

Consider a cryptosystem such that the computational complexities of encryption/decryption are $T(n) = n^2$, and that of the best cryptanalysis is $T(n) = 2^n$, where n is the key length. If we extend 128 bit key to 256 bit key,

- encryption/decryption time becomes $\frac{256^2}{128^2} = 4$ times longer,
- cryptanalysis time becomes $\frac{2^{256}}{2^{128}} = 2^{128}$ times longer,

→ for the improvement of the computational power, we just need to increase the key length.

1.4 Three main subjects

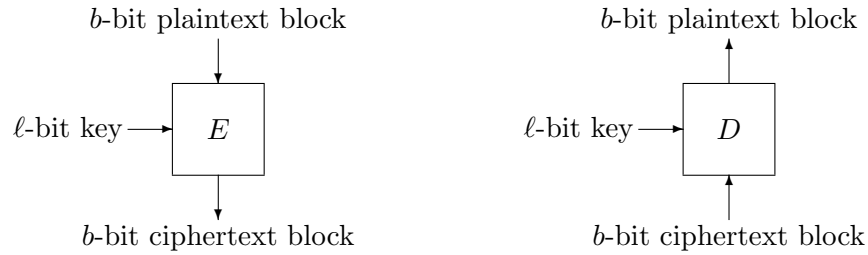
There are three subjects in the research of symmetric cryptosystem :

- **stream cipher** \approx designing a pseudo-random generator.
- **block cipher**. A tool for encrypting fixed length plaintexts.
- **mode of operation**. Methods to use block ciphers to encrypt arbitrarily length plaintexts (and to authenticate messages).

1.5 Block cipher and mode of operation

1.5.1 Block cipher

Fixed length plaintext \rightarrow the same length ciphertext



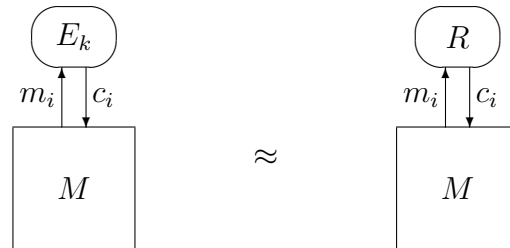
Block cipher : (E, D) with key length ℓ and block length b .

Correctness : for any key $k \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$ and plaintext block $m \in \{0, 1\}^b$, $D_k(E_k(m)) = m$ holds.

Definition 1.2 (Security of block cipher: Pseudo-random (informal))

We say a block cipher is secure, if any efficient attacker cannot tell the difference between the block cipher and a random permutation.

E_k returns $c_i := E_k(m_i)$ R returns random c_i



1.5.2 Mode of operation

We assume that there exists a “secure” block cipher (E_k, D_k) .

How to encrypt long messages with the block cipher ?

For simplicity, we assume that the length of plaintext \mathbf{m} is multiple of block length b .

$$\mathbf{m} = m_1 \| m_2 \| \cdots \| m_n, \quad m_i \in \{0, 1\}^b$$

ECB (Electric Code Book) mode.

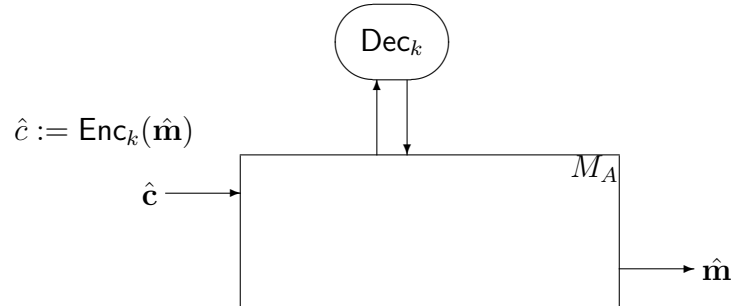
$$\begin{aligned}\text{Enc}_k(\mathbf{m}) &= c_1 \| c_2 \| \cdots \| c_n \\ c_i &= E_k(m_i)\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.2 *ECB mode is insecure in the sense of distinguishing ciphertext under chosen plaintext attack.*

(Proof) Let E_k be an arbitrary block cipher, and m_1, m_2 be arbitrary plaintext-blocks different from each other. Clearly, $\text{Enc}_k(m_1 \| m_1) = E_k(m_1) \| E_k(m_1)$ and $\text{Enc}_k(m_1 \| m_2) = E_k(m_1) \| E_k(m_2)$ can be easily distinguished.

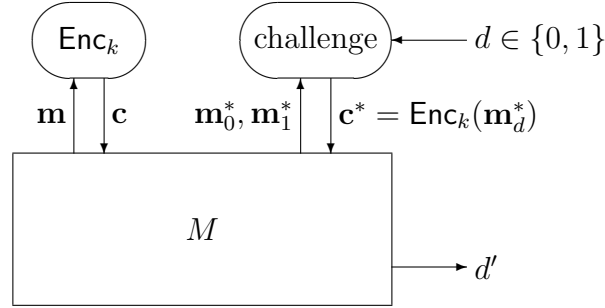
Theorem 1.3 *ECB mode is insecure in the sense of cryptanalysis under chosen ciphertext attack.*

(Proof) It is sufficient to construct attack algorithm M_A .

**CBC (Cipher Block Chaining) mode.**

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Enc}_k(\mathbf{m}) &= c_0 \| c_1 \| c_2 \| \cdots \| c_n \\ c_0 &= IV \leftarrow_{\$} \{0, 1\}^b \\ c_i &= E_k(m_i \oplus c_{i-1})\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.4 *If random permutation is used as the underlying block cipher and block length b is long enough (i.e. $1/2^b$ is negligibly small), then CBC mode is secure in the sense of indistinguishable against chosen plaintext attack.*



(Sketch of proof) For simplicity, we assume that M asks Encryption oracle only once. Let

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{m} &= m_1 \| \cdots \| m_n, & \mathbf{m}_d^* &= m_1^* \| \cdots \| m_n^*, \\
 \mathbf{c} &= IV \| c_1 \| \cdots \| c_n, & \mathbf{c}_d^* &= IV^* \| c_1^* \| \cdots \| c_n^*, \\
 in_i &:= m_i \oplus c_{i-1}, & in_i^* &:= m_i^* \oplus c_{i-1}^*.
 \end{aligned}$$

First, assume that $(in_1, \dots, in_n, in_1^*, \dots, in_n^*)$ are all different each other. In this case, $IV, c_1, \dots, c_n, IV^*, c_1^*, \dots, c_n^*$ are randomly and independently distributed regardless of bit d , because E is assumed to be random permutation. This means that M cannot guess d at all.

Next, we estimate the probability that this assumption holds. By using the facts that IV and IV^* are chosen randomly and independently, and E is assumed to be random permutation, we can show

$$\Pr[(in_1, \dots, in_n, in_1^*, \dots, in_n^*) \text{ are all different}] = 1 - \frac{(n + n^*)(n + n^* - 1)}{2^{b+1}}.$$

Since $1/2^b$ is negligibly small, this probability is almost 1. Consequently, M cannot guess d .

Counter mode. (Stream cipher)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Enc}_k(\mathbf{m}) &= ctr \| c_1 \| c_2 \| \dots \| c_n \\ ctr &: \text{counter} \\ c_i &= E_k(ctr + i) \oplus m_i \end{aligned}$$

Note that E_k is not necessary to be a permutation, because $D_k = E_k^{-1}$ is not used.

Theorem 1.5 *If random function is used as the underlying block cipher, then CTR mode is secure in the sense of indistinguishable against chosen plaintext attack.*

The proof is similar to that of Theorem 1.4, but

$$\Pr[(in_1, \dots, in_n, in_1^*, \dots, in_n^*) \text{ are all different}] = 1$$

in this case.

1.5.3 AES

(Advanced Encryption Standard)

An standard selected by the U.S. National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in 2001.

- The block size is 128-bit. The key size can be 128, 192, or 256.
- SPN (Substitution Premutation Network) structure.
- Number of rounds (number of S layer) depends on the key size.

Key size	Number of rounds
128	10
192	12
256	14

