

## Lecture 13: Public Key Encryption

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## 1 Hierarchy of Cryptography

We can divide cryptographic primitives and schemes into hierarchies divided by hardness assumptions. Roughly, the existence of primitives in higher floors implies the existence in lower floors.

**Floor 0:** one time pad

**Floor 1:** one way functions/permutations  $\rightarrow$  hardcore predicates  $\rightarrow$  pseudorandom permutations  $\rightarrow$  pseudorandom functions  $\rightarrow$  secret key encryption

**Floor 2:** trapdoor permutations  $\rightarrow$  public key encryption

## 2 Public Key Encryption

### Definition 1 *Public Key Encryption Scheme*

A *Public Key Encryption scheme (PKE)* consists of the following algorithms

- $Gen(n) = (pk, sk)$
- $Enc(pk, m) = c$
- $Dec(sk, c) = m$

satisfying the following

1. All are PPT.
2. *Correctness:*  $\forall m, \forall (sk, pk) \leftarrow Gen(n), Dec(sk, E(pk, m)) = m$
3. *Indistinguishable Security for PKE as defined below*

### Definition 2 *IND for PKE*

A *P.K.E scheme*  $(Gen, Enc, Dec)$  satisfies *IND* if

$\forall PPTA, \forall (m_0, m_1),$

$$\{(pk, sk) \leftarrow Gen(n) : pk || Enc(pk, m_0)\} \approx_c \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow Gen(n) : pk || Enc(pk, m_1)\} \quad (1)$$

We can also define this in terms for prediction advantage:

$\forall PPTA, \forall (m_0, m_1),$

$$\Pr[(pk, sk) \leftarrow Gen(n), b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\} : \mathcal{A}(pk, Enc(pk, m_b)) = b] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(n) \quad (2)$$

Notice that the above definition holds for all pairs  $m_0, m_1$ , no matter who generates them! If we restrict the above definition to pairs generated by the adversary, this is sometimes called **IND-CPA**; CPA stands for chosen plaintext attack because the adversary (the attacker) is choosing the plaintext (while even knowing the public key), and cannot distinguish between the two produced ciphertexts.

**Remark 1** *As with SKE, we must have the encryption not be deterministic. In fact, if deterministic SKE is “bad”, then deterministic PKE is a “disaster”.*

1. For deterministic SKE, an adversary can notice two ciphertexts are the same. Depending on the situation, this may enable “replay” attacks, in which the an adversary Eve notices that fixed ciphertexts sent from Alice to Bob correspond to some action (e.g. authentication). In this case, the attacker doesn’t need to know the plaintext to impersonate Alice; she just needs to send the ciphertexts.
2. For deterministic PKE, an adversary, given a single ciphertext, can encrypt likely messages with the public key and look for the ciphertext. This is devastating if the adversary knows likely messages, or if the size of the message is small. Also, the same “replay” attack still applies if an attacker notices repeating ciphertexts.

**Definition 3** *Multi Message Security for PKE (IND)*

$$\forall \{m_0^i\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}, \forall \{m_1^i\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}, l(n) = \text{poly}(n)$$

$$\{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\} \approx_c \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\} \quad (3)$$

Fortunately, we have a nice theorem that multi message PKE security follows from single message PKE security (under the notion of indistinguishability).

**Theorem 1** *IND for One Time PKE  $\implies$  IND for Multi Message PKE*

**Proof.** Suppose not. Thus, we assume we can distinguish  $\{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\}$  and  $\{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\}$ , and also that (Gen, Enc, Dec) is One Time PKE Secure (**IND**). We define the following hybrids.

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\} \\ H_1 &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^1), \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=2}^{l(n)}\} \\ H_2 &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^1)^2, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=3}^{l(n)}\} \\ &\vdots \\ H_{j-1} &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^1)^{j-1}, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=j}^{l(n)}\} \\ H_j &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^1)^j, \text{Enc}(pk, m_0^i)\}_{i=j+1}^{l(n)}\} \\ &\vdots \\ H_{l(n)} &: \{(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Gen}(n) : \{pk, \text{Enc}(pk, m_1^i)\}_{i=1}^{l(n)}\} \end{aligned}$$

By assumption,  $H_0$  and  $H_{l(n)}$  can be distinguished. Thus, by the Hybrid Lemma,  $\exists H_{k-1}$  and  $H_k$  and a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  s.t.  $\mathcal{A}$  can distinguish  $H_{k-1}$  and  $H_k$  with a noticeable advantage. We use  $\mathcal{A}$  to construct a PPT adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  to break One Time PKE security, which is a contradiction.

$\mathcal{B}$  works as follows:

1.  $\mathcal{B}$  picks  $(m_0^k, m_1^k)$  and receives from the oracle  $Enc(pk, m_b^k)$ .
2.  $\mathcal{B}$  invokes  $\mathcal{A}$  on the following distribution:  $\{\{Enc(pk, m_1^i)\}_{i=1}^{k-1} Enc(pk, m_b^k) \{Enc(pk, m_0^i)\}_{k+1}^{l(n)}\}$
3.  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs  $b = 0$  (for  $H_{k-1}$ ) or  $b = 1$  (for  $H_k$ )
4.  $\mathcal{B}$  repeats  $\mathcal{A}$ 's output

$\mathcal{B}$  is clearly a PPT algorithm as it only creates a polynomial length distribution and simply queries  $\mathcal{A}$ , which is also PPT. We also remark that the construction of the distribution is such that determining if it's  $H_k$  or  $H_{k-1}$  exactly determines if  $m_b$  is  $m_1$  or  $m_0$ . Because PPT  $\mathcal{A}$  is correct with noticeable probability, so is  $\mathcal{B}$ . ■

### 3 ElGamal PKE

The scheme ElGamal is based on the Decisional Diffie Hellman assumption (DDH).

#### Definition 4 Decisional Diffie Hellman (DDH)

Consider a multiplicative  $G_q$  of prime order  $q$  and let  $g \in G_q$  be a generator. The following distributions are then computationally indistinguishable:

$$\{a, b \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q : g, g^a, g^b, g^{ab}\} \approx_c \{a, b, r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q : g, g^a, g^b, g^{ab}\} \quad (4)$$

#### Definition 5 ElGamal PKE

1.  $Gen(n)$ : Sample  $g \leftarrow G, x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$  Set  $h = g^x$ .  $pk := (g, h), sk := x$
2.  $Enc(pk, m)$ : Sample  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ . Output  $c = (c_1, c_2) = (g^r, mh^r)$ .
3.  $Dec(x, c)$ : Compute  $c_1^x$ . Output  $c_2(c_1^x)^{-1}$ .

All algorithms are PPT. To show correctness,

$$\begin{aligned} c_2(c_1^x)^{-1} &= mh^r((g^r)^x)^{-1} = mh^r(g^{xr})^{-1} = \\ &= m(g^x)^r(g^{xr})^{-1} = m(g^{xr})(g^{xr})^{-1} = m. \end{aligned}$$

For security, we prove the following lemma.

**Lemma 2**  $\{g, g^x, g^r, m_0 g^{xr}\} \approx_c \{g, g^x, g^r, m_1 g^{xr}\}$

**Proof.** Sample  $R \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$ . We define the following hybrids:

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 &: \{g, g^x, g^r, m_0 g^{xr}\} \\ H_1 &: \{g, g^x, g^r, m_0 g^R\} \\ H_2 &: \{g, g^x, g^r, g^R\} \\ H_3 &: \{g, g^x, g^r, m_1 g^R\} \\ H_4 &: \{g, g^x, g^r, m_1 g^{xr}\} \end{aligned}$$

$H_0 \approx_c H_1$  by DDH assumption.  $H_1 = H_1 = H_3$  (but we may replace  $=$  by  $\approx_c$ , since equal distributions are obviously computationally indistinguishable.). We can see the equality by viewing multiplication by a fixed element as a permutation on the underlying group.  $H_3 \approx H_4$  by DDH assumption. Thus,  $H_0 \approx_c H_4$  by transitivity. ■

## 4 Other Cryptography Concerns

Imagine the following SKE protocol is secure.



Eve, although not shown, can intercept the messages. The following occurs:



What went wrong? The problem is that the schemes described thus far in the class are **malleable**. That is, the attacker can modify the ciphertext with predictable results without knowing the plaintext! We have already seen this for the one time pad. For example, consider Alice sending Bob a single message using a one time pad with previously agreed upon secret key  $k$ . Suppose Eve knows that Alice and Bob are sending messages of the form  $\text{"CMD||STOCK"}$ , where  $\text{"CMD"}$  is 4 bytes (either  $\text{"SELL"}$  or  $\text{"BUY_"}$ ) and  $\text{"STOCK"}$  is a 4 byte stock symbol. Thus, Alice sends  $c_1 = (\text{SELL||MSFT}) \oplus k$ . Eve intercepts  $c_1$ , and computes  $c_2 = c_1 \oplus (\text{SELL} \oplus \text{BUY_} || 0000) = (\text{SELL} \oplus \text{BUY_} \oplus \text{SELL||MSFT} \oplus 0000) \oplus k = (\text{BUY_} || \text{MSFT}) \oplus k$ . Eve sends  $c_2$  to Bob.

## 5 ElGamal Attack

Here is an example of how ElGamal is malleable. Suppose Alice is sending a bid,  $m$  to Bob, by sending  $(c_1, c_2) = (g^r, mh^r)$ . Eve wants to bankrupt Alice; thus she intercepts Alice's message and sends  $(c_3, c_4) = (c_1, k * mh^r)$  where  $k$  is a large positive integer. Upon decryption, Bob will receive a bid of  $k * m$ , which Alice cannot afford but is now under contract to pay.

## 6 Non Malleability

For practical value, we need notions of non malleability for encryptions. Here are informal definitions to be made precise later. For **SKE**, given encryptions of  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_n$ , an adversary cannot produce an encryption of  $m_{n+1}$  s.t.  $m_{n+1} \neq m_i \forall 0 \leq i \leq n$ .

For **PKE**, given an encryption of  $m$ , an adversary cannot produce an encryption of  $m'$  where  $m$  and  $m'$  are "related", where "related" will be made precise in the future.