

# CPSC 367: Cryptography and Security

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## ElGamal Cryptosystem

## Message Integrity and Authenticity

## Symmetric Digital Signatures

# ElGamal Cryptosystem

## A variant of DH key exchange

A variant protocol has Bob going first followed by Alice.

<b>Alice</b>	<b>Bob</b>
	Choose random $y \in \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(p)}$ .
	$b = g^y \bmod p$ .
	Send $b$ to Alice.
Choose random $x \in \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(p)}$ .	
$a = g^x \bmod p$ .	
Send $a$ to Bob.	
$k_a = b^x \bmod p$ .	$k_b = a^y \bmod p$ .

ElGamal Variant of Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange.

## Comparison with first DH protocol

The difference here is that Bob completes his action at the beginning and no longer has to communicate with Alice.

Alice, at a later time, can complete her half of the protocol and send  $a$  to Bob, at which point Alice and Bob share a key.

## Turning D-H into a public key cryptosystem

This is just the scenario we want for public key cryptography. Bob generates a public key  $(p, g, b)$  and a private key  $(p, g, y)$ .

Alice (or anyone who obtains Bob's public key) can complete the protocol by sending  $a$  to Bob.

This is the idea behind the ElGamal public key cryptosystem.

## ElGamal cryptosystem

Assume Alice knows Bob's public key  $(p, g, b)$ . To encrypt a message  $m$ :

- ▶ She first completes her part of the key exchange protocol to obtain numbers  $a$  and  $k$ .
- ▶ She then computes  $c = mk \bmod p$  and sends the pair  $(a, c)$  to Bob.
- ▶ When Bob gets this message, he first uses  $a$  to complete his part of the protocol and obtain  $k$ .
- ▶ He then computes  $m = k^{-1}c \bmod p$ .

## Combining key exchange with underlying cryptosystem

The ElGamal cryptosystem uses the simple encryption function  $E_k(m) = mk \bmod p$  to actually encode the message.

Any symmetric cryptosystem would work equally well.

An advantage of using a standard system such as AES is that long messages can be sent following only a single key exchange.



## A hybrid ElGamal cryptosystem

A hybrid ElGamal public key cryptosystem.

- ▶ As before, Bob generates a public key  $(p, g, b)$  and a private key  $(p, g, y)$ .
- ▶ To encrypt a message  $m$  to Bob, Alice first obtains Bob's public key and chooses a **random**  $x \in \mathbf{Z}_{\phi(p)}$ .
- ▶ She next computes  $a = g^x \bmod p$  and  $k = b^x \bmod p$ .
- ▶ She then computes  $E_{(p,g,b)}(m) = (a, \hat{E}_k(m))$  and sends it to Bob. Here,  $\hat{E}$  is the encryption function of the underlying symmetric cryptosystem.
- ▶ Bob receives a pair  $(a, c)$ .
- ▶ To decrypt, Bob computes  $k = a^y \bmod p$  and then computes  $m = \hat{D}_k(c)$ .

## Randomized encryption

We remark that a new element has been snuck in here. The ElGamal cryptosystem and its variants require Alice to generate a random number which is then used in the course of encryption.

Thus, the resulting encryption function is a *random function* rather than an ordinary function.

A random function is one that can return different values each time it is called, even for the same arguments.

Formally, we view a random function as returning a *probability distribution* on the output space.

## Remarks about randomized encryption

With  $E_{(p,g,b)}(m)$  each message  $m$  has many different possible encryptions. This has some consequences.

**An advantage:** Eve can no longer use the public encryption function to check a possible decryption.

Even if she knows  $m$ , she cannot verify  $m$  is the correct decryption of  $(a, c)$  simply by computing  $E_{(p,g,b)}(m)$ , which she could do for a deterministic cryptosystem such as RSA.

**Two disadvantages:**

- ▶ Alice must have a source of randomness.
- ▶ The ciphertext is longer than the corresponding plaintext.

# Message Integrity and Authenticity

## Protecting messages

Encryption protects message **confidentiality**.

We also wish to protect message **integrity** and **authenticity**.

- ▶ *Integrity* means that the message has not been altered.
- ▶ *Authenticity* means that the message is genuine.

The two are closely linked. The result of a modification attack by an active adversary could be a message that fails either integrity or authenticity checks (or both).

In addition, it should not be possible for an adversary to come up with a forged message that satisfies both integrity and authenticity.

## Protecting integrity and authenticity

Authenticity is protected using symmetric or asymmetric **digital signatures**.

A *digital signature* (or MAC) is a string  $s$  that binds an individual or other entity  $A$  with a message  $m$ .

The recipient of the message *verifies* that  $s$  is a *valid signature* of  $A$  for message  $m$ .

It should hard for an adversary to create a valid signature  $s'$  for a message  $m'$  without knowledge of  $A$ 's secret information.

This also protects integrity, since a modified message  $m'$  will not likely verify with signature  $s$  (or else  $(m', s)$  would be a successful forgery).

# Symmetric Digital Signatures

## Message authentication codes (MACs)

A *Message Authentication Code* or *MAC* is a digital signature associated with a *symmetric (one-key) signature scheme*.

A MAC is generated by a function  $C_k(m)$  that can be computed by anyone knowing the secret key  $k$ .

It should be hard for an attacker, without knowing  $k$ , to find any pair  $(m, \xi)$  such that  $\xi = C_k(m)$ .

This should remain true even if the attacker knows a set of valid MAC pairs  $\{(m_1, \xi_1), \dots, (m_t, \xi_t)\}$  so long as  $m$  itself is not the message in one of the known pairs.



## Creating an authenticated message

Alice has a secret key  $k$ .

- ▶ Alice protects a message  $m$  (encrypted or not) by attaching a MAC  $\xi = C_k(m)$  to the message  $m$ .
- ▶ The pair  $(m, \xi)$  is an *authenticated message*.
- ▶ To produce a MAC requires possession of the secret key  $k$ .

## Verifying an authenticated message

Bob receives an authenticated message  $(m', \xi')$ . We assume Bob also knows  $k$ .

- ▶ Bob verifies the message's integrity and authenticity by verifying that  $\xi' = C_k(m')$ .
- ▶ If his check succeeds, he *accepts*  $m'$  as a valid message from Alice.
- ▶ To verify a MAC requires possession of the secret key  $k$ .

Assuming Alice and Bob are the only parties who share  $k$ , then Bob knows that  $m'$  came from Alice.

## Cheating

Mallory *successfully cheats* if Bob accepts a message  $m'$  as valid that Alice never sent.

Assuming a secure MAC scheme, Mallory can not cheat with non-negligible success probability, even knowing a set of valid message-MAC pairs previously sent by Alice.

If he could, he would be able to construct valid forged authenticated messages, violating the assumed properties of a MAC.

## Computing a MAC

A block cipher such as AES can be used to compute a MAC by making use of CBC or CFB ciphertext chaining modes.

In these modes, the last ciphertext block  $c_t$  depends on all  $t$  message blocks  $m_1, \dots, m_t$ , so we define

$$C_k(m) = c_t.$$

Note that the MAC is only a single block long. This is in general much shorter than the message.

A MAC acts like a checksum for preserving data integrity, but it has the advantage that an adversary cannot compute a valid MAC for an altered message.

## Protecting both privacy and authenticity

If Alice wants both privacy and authenticity, she can encrypt  $m$  and use the MAC to protect the ciphertext from alteration.

- ▶ Alice sends  $c = E_k(m)$  and  $\xi = C_k(c)$ .
- ▶ Bob, after receiving  $c'$  and  $\xi'$ , only decrypts  $c'$  after first verifying that  $\xi' = C_k(c')$ .
- ▶ If it verifies, then Bob assumes  $c'$  was produced by Alice, so he also assume that  $m' = D_k(c')$  is Alice's message  $m$ .

## Another possible use of a MAC

Another possibility is for Alice to send  $c = E_k(m)$  and  $\xi = C_k(m)$ . Here, the MAC is computed from  $m$ , not  $c$ .

Bob, upon receiving  $c'$  and  $\xi'$ , first decrypts  $c'$  to get  $m'$  and then checks that  $\xi' = C_k(m')$ , i.e., Bob checks  $\xi' = C_k(D_k(c'))$

Does this work just as well?

In practice, this might also work, but its security *does not follow* from the assumed security property of the MAC.

## The problem

The MAC property says Mallory cannot produce a pair  $(m', \xi')$  for an  $m'$  that Alice never sent.

It does *not* follow that he cannot produce a pair  $(c', \xi')$  that Bob will accept as valid, even though  $c'$  is not the encryption of one of Alice's messages.

If Mallory succeeds in convincing Bob to accept  $(c', \xi')$ , then Bob will decrypt  $c'$  to get  $m' = D_k(c')$  and incorrectly accept  $m'$  as coming from Alice.

## Example of a flawed use of a MAC

Here's how Mallory might find  $(c', \xi')$  such that  $\xi' = C_k(D_k(c'))$ .

Suppose the MAC function  $C_k$  is derived from underlying block encryption function  $E_k$  using the CBC or CFB chaining modes as described earlier, and Alice also encrypts messages using  $E_k$  with the same chaining rule.

Then the MAC is just the last ciphertext block  $c'_t$ , and Bob will always accept  $(c', c'_t)$  as valid.